DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 070 101 CS 200 284

AUTHOR	Stryker, David, Ed.
TITLE	New Trends in English Education: Selected Addresses Delivered at the Conference on English Education (4th, Carnegie Institute of Technology, March 31, April 1, 2, 1966).
INSTITUTION	National Council of Teachers of English, Champaign, Ill.
PUB DATE	66
NOTE	93p.
AVAILABLE FROM	National Council of Teachers of English, 1111 Kenyon Road, Urbana, Ill. 61801 (Stock No. 19802, $1.95 non-member, $1.75 member)
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.65 HC-$3.29
DESCRIPTORS	Composition (Literary); Culturally Disadvantaged; Dialect Studies; *Educational Trends; English Curriculum; *English Education; *English Instruction; Gifted; Inservice Teacher Education; Language; Literature; Literature Appreciation; Oral English; Reading Programs; *Teacher Education; *Teaching Methods

ABSTRACT

Special concerns in English education are explored in 11 papers from the 1966 Conference on English Education. Following an introduction by David Stryker, Lindley Stiles discusses important overall trends in teacher education. James Squire points out existing weaknesses in the preparation of English teachers and calls for specific curriculum reforms in these areas. Robert Slack describes a successfully tested program for academically talented high school students. Garda Bowman, Lawana Trout, and William LaPlante offer specific program and teaching suggestions to assist teachers who work with disadvantaged students of all ages, and Raven McDavid, Jr. briefly analyzes the variant American English dialects. Jerry Walker describes the paucity of student teachers' knowledge of library resources and services. Doris Young Kuhn reports efforts to develop a written test for measuring children's responses to literature. John Portz describes his experiences with an NDEA Institute which focused on written composition. Arlin Turner stresses the permanent qualities of literature, which can be either enhanced or annihilated by explication. (This document previously announced as ED 023 685.) (JB)

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

ED 070101

NEW TRENDS IN ENGLISH EDUCATION

Selected Addresses Delivered at the Fourth

CONFERENCE ON ENGLISH EDUCATION

CARNEGIE INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY

March 31, April 1, 2, 1966

DAVID STRYKER

University of Florida

Editor

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

508 South Sixth Street, Champaign, Illinois 61820

CS 200 894

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS COPYRIGHTED MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
National Council of Teachers of English
TO ERIC AND ORGANIZATIONS OPERATING UNDER AGREEMENTS WITH THE U.S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION. FURTHER REPRODUCTION OUTSIDE THE ERIC SYSTEM REQUIRES PERMISSION OF THE COPYRIGHT OWNER.

Copyright 1966
National Council of Teachers of English

Fourth
CONFERENCE ON ENGLISH EDUCATION
1966

Program Chairman: Richard A. Meade, University of Virginia

Associate Chairman: Eugene E. Slaughter, United States Office of Education

Local Cochairmen: Lois S. Josephs and Rina C. Youngner, Carnegie Institute of Technology

Program Committee:

Sue M. Brett, United States Office of Education
Naomi Chase, University of Minnesota
Edmund J. Farrell, University of California, Berkeley
M. Agnella Gunn, University of Connecticut
John R. Searles, University of Wisconsin
Robert E. Shafer, Hunter College (now at Arizona State University)
Anthony Tovatt, Ball State University

INTRODUCTION

Among the twenty-eight speakers who addressed the 1966 Conference on English Education, more than half spoke from notes or commented extemporaneously in connection with a presentation or demonstration. The eleven papers published in this volume offer a sampling of the informative and stimulating addresses that conference-goers enjoyed.

The topic of the fourth conference was "English Education for Today's Special Concerns," and Dean Stiles started the program by discussing nine developing trends he has observed in teacher education as a whole. NCTE Executive Secretary Squire pointed out existing weaknesses in the preparation of English teachers and called for action to strengthen these areas. Professor Slack described a program for the academically talented in use in Pittsburgh. Professors Bowman, Trout, McDavid, and LaPlante presented papers which, in various ways, offer assistance to teachers working with disadvantaged students. Professor Walker revealed the paucity of student teachers' knowledge of library resources and services. Professor Kuhn reported efforts of the NCTE Research Foundation to develop a paper-pencil instrument to measure children's responses to literature, and Professor Portz described his experiences with an NDEA institute focusing on written composition. Professor Turner's banquet address stressed the permanence of literature, assisted by or in danger of annihilation by space-age techniques of explication.

Over 300 specialists in English education heard these papers when they were first presented. If the preparation of teachers of English at all levels is to improve—and it must, these addresses deserve not only wide reading but immediate response. In the words with which Garda Bowman concluded her important address, "The pace of change today is beyond all our past dreaming. As some of our proximate goals are realized, we must raise our sights to ultimate goals—toward using the infinitely precious tool of language to educate people who will truly 'act as men of thought and think as men of action'."

—David Stryker
University of Florida

National Council of Teachers of English

CONFERENCE ON ENGLISH EDUCATION

Executive Committee (1966-1967)

Dwight L. Burton, Florida State University, *Chairman, 1964-1966*

J. N. Hook, University of Illinois, *Chairman, 1966-*

G. Robert Carlsen, University of Iowa

Shirley M. Carriar, Colorado State College, *Assistant Editor*

Alfred L. Crabb, Jr., University of Kentucky

Stephen Dunning, University of Michigan

Margaret Early, Syracuse University

William H. Evans, Southern Illinois University

Edmund J. Farrell, University of California, Berkeley

Alfred H. Grommon, Stanford University, *Associate Chairman, 1964-1966*

George H. Henry, University of Delaware

Arno Jewett, United States Office of Education

Stanley B. Kegler, University of Minnesota

Arnold Lazarus, Purdue University

Richard A. Meade, University of Virginia

Robert C. Pooley, University of Wisconsin, *Associate Chairman, 1966-*

James R. Squire, University of Illinois, *Secretary-Treasurer*

Ruth G. Strickland, Indiana University

David Stryker, University of Florida, *Editor*

CONTENTS

Introduction iii
David Stryker

New Challenges to Teacher Education 1
Lindley J. Stiles

The Impact of New Programs on the Education of Teachers of English 7
James R. Squire

English for the Academically Talented 15
Robert C. Slack

New Programs for the Disadvantaged 27
Garda W. Bowman

Two Programs for the Disadvantaged: Educational Services Inc. and the Princeton Summer Institute 37

Dialect Study and English Education 43
Raven I. McDavid, Jr.

The Job Corps Reading Program 53
William A. LaPlante

Student Teachers' Knowledge of Library Resources and Services 61
Jerry L. Walker

Evaluation of Children's Responses to Literature 69
Doris Young Kuhn

A Composition Institute 77
John Portz

Teaching Literature in the Space Age 83
Arlin Turner

New Challenges to Teacher Education

LINDLEY J. STILES, *University of Wisconsin*

The general concern of the American public for the quality of education has tended to center on teacher education. Within the past decade, lay citizens who formerly had taken the preparation of teachers pretty much for granted have become acutely interested in everything about the way teachers are selected, prepared, and utilized in elementary and secondary schools. No question in this field is too small, too involved, or too intricate to be beyond the concern of lay citizens who seem suddenly to have grasped the significance and relationships between the quality of teachers and the quality of education. With the spotlight on teacher education, the drama of its dilemmas and developments has unfolded to the point that the existing situation is coming to be widely known, partially understood, and hotly debated.

The Situation

For over a century teacher education has been enmeshed in a prolonged battle for control. The controversy deals primarily with who should make policy —prescribe programs and standards—for teacher education in colleges and universities. On one side are found professors of education, officials in state departments of public instruction, and leaders in the organized teaching profession; on the other are professors of liberal arts and academic and specialized subjects in colleges and universities, political leaders, and, one might presume, much of the general public. The professional educationists and their followers presently are in control of programs of teacher education. The others feel that they should have something to say about how teachers are prepared.

The controversy in teacher education, as Dr. Conant has pointed out, is more political than educational. It concerns essentially the control and manipulation of forces external to institutions of higher learning—licensing of teachers and accreditation of teacher education programs—that ultimately delimit faculty autonomy as well as generate antagonisms among faculty colleagues. Despite numerous efforts to develop a negotiated peace and professional cooperation between the contesting groups, it is fair and honest to say that the resolution of the conflict has yet to be achieved. Yet, it should be pointed out that on some campuses, and in some states, patterns of cooperation have developed that suggest the century long battle could be speedily ended if faculty autonomy were returned to colleges and universities and control democratically shared by all faculty members who help to prepare teachers.

A new and potent force injected into the controversy over teacher education has been the developing concern of the general public. Until recent years the quarrel was assumed by most laymen who had heard about it to be an internal matter—a battle of vested interests—within institutions of higher learning. With the sharpened public sensitivities that have developed, however, an awareness is coming about that the altercation has of necessity become a matter of public concern—since the continuation of the tension or the manner in which it may be resolved will affect all.

In some states the public actually has joined the battle. Representatives of the public in at least two states, California and Hawaii, have taken legislative action to achieve objectives in teacher education programs that are endorsed by the general public as well as segments of the academic community. In other states, representatives of the informed public at least have practically organized into rooting sections to cheer for points of view and objectives considered important. Press reports of developments in teacher education are almost as lively and as eagerly consumed by the reading public as are stories of sporting events.

That the public ultimately would become involved in the controversy about teacher education was a predictable development. With public interest at stake, and competing professionals unable to resolve the conflict, the public quite naturally would become frustrated and disgusted to the point of taking matters into its own hands. The situation documents anew a characteristic truth about democratic government: what the designated officials can't or won't take care of, the public ultimately will.

It isn't that the professionals who control teacher education don't want to bring the conflict to a congenial, compatible, and workable conclusion; they desperately do. All are embarrassed about the public image held of teacher education and professional educationists. All are aware of the damage that results from faculty friction over the way teachers are prepared. Most concede too that the exclusive control of teacher education by educationists must come to an end, but not all agree that full democratic sharing of responsibility for teacher education should be permitted. The coalitions of professional educationists in colleges and in the field who control teacher education have negotiated in recent years among themselves and with colleagues in liberal arts and the subject fields about modifications that might be made in control patterns. As they have, it has been constantly clear that the educationists are extremely reluctant to relinquish the controls—prerogatives for program development—that have been won and defended with such vigor over the years. It is clear also that full use will continue to be made of external pressures such as teacher licensing and accreditation of programs to preserve as much of the status quo as possible.

The Prospect

It is unreasonable, one must concede, to expect a professional group voluntarily to relinquish controls that have been carefully established and which are considered by members of that group to be vital to the interests

of teacher education. Negotiation and compromise are likely to come only when pressures are sufficiently great to bring the warring factions to the conference table. These negotiations are likely to take place on a campus-to-campus and state-to-state basis. However the negotiations may go, one prospect has been fairly well documented by the history of the past hundred years: the conflict over teacher education will continue until vested interest domination is either relinquished or destroyed. In its place, one can predict, will come an interdisciplinary partnership for control of teacher education policy and programs—a union that will give to professors of liberal arts and the academic and specialized subject fields shares of responsibility for policy making and program development comparable to the proportion of the load carried in teacher education programs.

External prescriptions for programs in teacher education will be minimized. Requirements for teacher licensure in the various states and criteria for accreditation of teacher education programs will become more respectful of institutional autonomy and less controlled by the pedagogical vested interest within institutions and the profession of teaching. The approved program approach already adopted by most state departments of public instruction represents a step in this direction. The restricted state approved program approach recommended by Dr. Conant—that would place greater responsibility on institutional faculties for judging competence to teach and accepting responsibility for the quality of teachers developed—represents a further modification that has promise. Criteria and standards for accrediting teacher education programs in colleges and universities may by expected to become less prescriptive, less monolithic, and less concerned with the internal organization and operation of teacher education programs in institutions of higher education.

If accreditation is to succeed, it must also be sponsored by an interdisciplinary partnership of scholars in the liberal arts and the subject and specialized fields, as well as by professors of education, and must become more responsive to the institutions to which it is properly accountable. The continuation of a program of national accrediting as a useful resource for improving the quality of teacher education will require the limitation of accrediting efforts to the task to which they can best contribute: providing guidance to and judgments about new programs of teacher education, rather than prescribing patterns of conformity for established programs. Reciprocity among states for teacher licensure, a desirable objective, will be achieved on grounds other than conformity to accreditation standards. The new regional coalitions of state departments of public instruction to improve standards of education may well be the instrument by which formulas are worked out to permit teachers to move easily from state to state without licensing harassments or loss of tenure and retirement benefits.

Two parallel forces currently are impinging on teacher education: a rapid expansion of knowledge in all fields that underscores the importance of the subject content in the school curriculum, and renewed concern for making the benefits of education available to all children and youth that underscores the importance of professional preparation that makes individual differences in

students a reality for the planning of programs and techniques of instruction. The expansion of knowledge prescribes a greater degree of specialization for teachers in the subjects to be taught. It also reduces the possibility that the educationist-generalist, whose major qualification is familiarity with school programs, will be able to make sound judgments about the subjects that prospective teachers ought to study in their specialized fields. Renewed concern for the differences in students—in culturally induced interests, background, motivations, as well as intelligence—motivates interest in tapping all the interdisciplinary resources of the scholarly community in institutions of higher learning to design educational programs that educate all children and youth.

Inasmuch as quality in teaching has yet to be defined adequately and satisfactorily, programs to prepare teachers will, with wisdom, aim at general objectives and generate broad emphases that hold the most promise for contributing to the kind of intellectual, scholarly, and professional backgrounds from which teachers can move with flexibility and effectiveness to deal with specific educational problems. The general areas of emphasis in collegiate programs that have come to be recognized as most valid for the preparation of teachers include the liberal arts and sciences, specialized scholarship in the subject field or fields in which teaching is contemplated, knowledge about education and its processes, as well as clinical practice for teaching.

Research and innovations to strengthen teacher education may be expected to increase. Support for such efforts hopefully will come from the federal government as well as from philanthropic foundations that have over the past years expressed substantial interest in this field. As innovations develop, multiple routes to prepare for teaching are expected to prevail within institutions as well as among institutions. As the lockstep of standardization in teacher education programs is broken, ideas for its improvement will have a fair chance to compete against each other to demonstrate better practices.

Developing Trends

The following trends appear to be developing in teacher education:

1. The control of policies and programs of teacher education is becoming interdisciplinary in character and functionally accountable in terms of the quality of graduates produced.

2. Higher standards for the selection of teachers are evolving. It may be expected, for example, that prospective teachers will soon come only from the upper half or one third of college populations as measured at the beginning of the third or junior year of college.

3. Preservice programs of preparation for teaching are being lengthened to include the fifth year. The primary purpose for the increase in time devoted to preparation for teaching is to provide for a better foundation in the liberal arts and a deeper specialization in the subject field or fields to be taught as well as to make possible a more realistic type of clinical practice; *e.g.*, a full semester internship during the fifth year.

4. Teacher licensure requirements are becoming less specific, with greater responsibility for certification of quality being placed on institutional faculties.

5. State departments of public instruction and local elementary and secondary schools are becoming active and responsible partners in teacher education programs. State departments are assuming the obligation to work with school systems to provide and coordinate the use of clinical stations for interns from various institutions preparing teachers. Local school systems are assuming greater responsibility for the clinical practice, on the analogy of the contributions made by hospitals to interns in the medical field.

6. Preparation for administration and supervision and other specialized leadership positions in education is being postponed to begin after the fifth year of preparation for teaching. Two years of planned graduate study—the six year specialist program—are already required for superintendents of schools. Similar standards are being considered for principals, guidance counselors, and other kinds of specialists.

7. Professors in pedagogical departments who concentrate on providing leadership for teacher education in colleges and universities are maintaining closer ties with the academic roots for the professional field of education. Professors who teach methods and supervise clinical practice, for example, are expected to be reputable scholars in the subject fields in which they work as well as accomplished professional practitioners. Similarly, programs to prepare educational administrators are drawing heavily upon the foundation subject fields such as political science, economics, and sociology, as well as other professional subjects that include law, philosophy of education, psychology, and measurement of learning, among others.

8. The need for programs in liberal education and in the teaching field concentrations to be reexamined is being recognized. The trend is for teachers to be prepared in the liberal arts by patterns that are common to other students, which represents a deviation from the criterion that the educationist should design a separate program of liberal arts for prospective teachers. The recognition that traditional major and minor patterns in the academic subject fields are often too limited in scope to provide appropriate programs for prospective teachers, added to the increasing involvement of professors in subject fields in the planning of programs of concentration for teachers, is leading to new looks at the kinds of scholarly preparation that teachers need to be effective in teaching subjects in elementary and secondary schools. In the field of English, for example, professors of English, often somewhat reluctantly it must be admitted, are joining in partnerships with their colleagues in such fields as linguistics, world literature, speech, oral interpretation, drama, and of course in language when such is separate from literature, to design programs of specialization that will prepare teachers who are well rounded in academic backgrounds for their teaching assignments.

9. The professional sequence has been or is being reduced to include only the basic content courses for which sufficient knowledge exists to guarantee that pedagogical courses will be intellectually stimulating and mutually discrete in content. Philosophy, history, and sociology of education, frequently called

the role of the school in American society, is pretty well established as one foundation course. Educational psychology, with emphasis upon human learning and its motivation, is another. Not yet resolved is what should be done about the very important field of tests and measurements or the evaluation of learning. The tendency in the past has been to give precedence to emphasis on so-called human development, which in itself often overlaps the material presented on psychology of learning. Work in general methods of teaching is being merged with specialized methods courses. For elementary school teachers the isolated and separate methods courses, which typically have been highly redundant and thin in content emphasis, are being condensed and merged into fused or integrated approaches to methodology for the elementary schools. And finally, a full-time internship for eight weeks to a semester is replacing the type of student teaching which was scheduled for an hour a day for an entire year or for a half day for one semester.

Opportunity and Challenge

These are exciting times for all interested in teacher education. We move ahead with our efforts in the floodlights of public interest and concern and with the full interdisciplinary help of all partners in the enterprise. The specialist in the teaching of a subject field such as English plays a central role in leadership to improve teacher education. He works in an area that is generally endorsed by all as being vital to the preparation of teachers. He also serves as the liaison between the pedagogical departments and the subject departments within the university and has constant contact with schools in the field. The opportunity and challenge that confronts all is to develop teachers so well grounded in the liberal arts and so well qualified in the subjects they teach, so knowledgeable about education and its processes, and so skilled in the art of teaching that they will be fully qualified to develop programs of learning for children and youth that are characterized both by high standards of quality and effective contributions to all students.

The Impact of New Programs on the Education of Teachers of English

JAMES R. SQUIRE, *University of Illinois*

"Current curriculum reform in the United States," according to a report from the Fund for the Advancement of Education, is not "generative or innovative (in teacher education) because it is not built into the education of teachers."[1] Thus the Fund clarifies the fact that in too many instances the people recruited by college faculties to fill teacher education positions are qualified only as *former* teachers of English, history, or social studies. They are not involved in curriculum reform in any way; they have been "bypassed because they left their fields and stopped teaching in their fields, a long time ago."[2]

This charge, a serious one, is only partially true in the field of English. A majority of members of this conference, some 60 percent, are from college English departments where they teach English and methods, and many of those here from schools of education, not an inconsiderable number, are involved in directing programs of curriculum reform. This evidence that many leaders in English education are devoting attention to both the teaching of teachers and the teaching of English may be one of the strengths of current developments in English. Still, we find there is no way to ignore the strong warning of the Fund that self-contained projects bypass those responsible for teaching teachers. Whether we like it or not, the Fund has exposed the Achilles' heel of modern curricular reform. Unless we somehow find ways of educating teachers of teachers to the content and methodologies of new curricular practice, the promise of many of today's projects will surely be lost.

To obtain some indication of the present impact of English curriculum study centers on teacher education, I recently wrote to the directors of such projects at their institutions. Fifteen have replied, and their responses indicate some of the ways in which projects are and are not influencing teacher education.

Of 115 regular staff members now reported to be functioning in the curriculum study centers, some 56 hold appointments in departments of English; 29 in colleges of education; and the remainder—a very small number—appointments in psychology, speech, linguistics, library science, English education, and positions outside the university.

---

[1] *School Curriculum Reform in the United States* (New York: Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1965).

[2] *Ibid.*

It is English, then, which largely should be affected. But the immediate question is whether the responsibility for educating teachers is actually in the subject department. Two thirds of the directors agreed that their programs have had some impact on English teacher education, though often it seems that the effect has been to change certain attitudes of the director, rather than to promote basic reorganization.

I shall not dwell on the obvious implication of major developments in English—the new education in language, literature, composition, and the supporting skills demanded not only of teachers but of teachers of teachers. In one sense, the Conference on English Education was founded to provide opportunity for this process of self-renewal. And Paul Olson's important conference last month at the University of Nebraska on educating elementary teachers shows further that we are not unmindful of the need.[3] Where specific new courses have been added to the programs, they have been most often in the areas of language and composition, as at the university centers of Oregon, Northwestern, and Georgia, though such changes seem to have resulted more from ideas developed for summer NDEA institutes than from the curriculum projects themselves. Admittedly, most of the summer institutes were related to projects undertaken during the year and seem, in the minds of directors, one and the same. Still, nothing dismisses the fact that only a handful of directors reported overt changes such as the addition of a course; more frequently they reported either unspecified changes within the methods courses or a single presentation of project materials to the methods students. What remains unspecified may well be unfulfilled. No one, then, reviewing these reports from project directors can form the impression that the projects have yet had a profound and widespread influence on programs of English education. The next question to ask is when and whether more profound changes are going to happen.

Obvious to all of us is the necessity to reappraise the basic subject matter requirements of our teacher education programs—so obvious, in fact, that I dwell not at all on these imperatives. But it is well to remember that not only the teacher of English needs to return again to studies in language, literature, and composition, but also the teacher of teachers. If method in English is to reflect the structure of the subject, then the methods instructor, the district supervisor, and those working closely with teachers must be thoroughly familiar with the developing frontiers of research and scholarship in our subject. In our anxiety to provide a reeducation in English for classroom teachers, we have perhaps too often overlooked our own.

It is possible to find methods instructors and supervisors possessing little more than third- or fourth-hand knowledge of recent scholarly work on Frye, Booth, Chomsky, Christensen, and others. Let us hope that this summer's NDEA institutes at the Universities of Minnesota and Illinois become harbingers of a sorely needed awakening of supervisors and methods instructors to the fact that it is not only classroom teachers of English who require vigorous restudy.

[3] Paul A. Olson (ed.), *The Arts of Language: Needed Curricula and Curriculum Development for Institutes in the English Language Arts* (Lincoln: Department of English, University of Nebraska, 1966). Mimeographed.

But it is not such general matters with which I shall concern myself in this paper; rather, I dwell on four implications of present projects which seem to be receiving too little attention.

1. A Reconsideration of the Place of Oral English

Neglected today in the preparation of elementary and secondary teachers is oral English—speaking and listening if you will, although I prefer the all-embracing term, suggesting as it does not only routine speech activities, but awareness of language development of children, psycholinguistics, recognition of the centrality of training in oral usage, classroom discussion involving processes of sound thinking, and oral interpretation of literature.

Ruth Strickland has long since demonstrated the key relationships between oral language and reading. Headstart projects throughout the nation, the Wilmington Project on Changing Neighborhoods, the Carl Bereiter preschool center at Illinois, and the Basil Bernstein studies in England demonstrate the cruciality of oral language in improving the thinking and language skills of disadvantaged children. Only recently the NCTE Task Force pointed with alarm to the absence of concern with oral language in school programs for the disadvantaged, especially in classes which teach reading on junior and senior high school levels.[4]

Our knowledge here far exceeds our practice in teacher education and in teaching. We talk much about oral language, but have we really sought an answer? Kenneth Brown of Northwestern, who recently studied the content of existing elementary language arts books, discovered that despite directions in teacher manuals urging much attention to oral approaches, less than 25 percent of the lessons and pages in almost all such books is actually devoted to speech activities.[5]

The need is manifest; yet how do we in teacher education approach the problem? Do we approach it through courses in speech? Indeed, most courses presently provide no answer to this problem confronting us. The introductory course deals characteristically with principles of argumentation and persuasion, with formal aspects of rhetoric and platform—important, surely, but not likely to provide the insights that teachers require into the role of language and thinking in informal situations. A second speech course, if presently required, is quite likely to emphasize oral interpretation, again important basic education but not at all a solution to the problem.

Where then, I ask, do elementary and secondary teachers learn about group discussion, thought and language, questioning techniques and the nature of oral usage? If, clearly, they cannot do it in courses of speech, can they look toward emerging programs in language to provide such learning? Unfortunately,

---

[4] Richard Corbin and Muriel Crosby (chairmen), *Language Programs for the Disadvantaged.* (Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1965).

[5] Kenneth L. Brown, "Notes on an Analysis of the Speech and Listening Content of Selected Pupil Textbooks in Language Arts for the Elementary Schools: Grades Three Through Six." Mimeographed paper presented at a meeting of the Speech Association of America, December, 1965.

most of the teachers in these language programs, except for their relatively small concern with phonological structure and regional and social variations, are not competent to deal with problems of language development and learning—problems that are outside their main areas of history and structure of the English language.

The last possibility, the methods course, will contribute what it can to such aspects of oral learning; however, an hour or two on group discussion, on language and thinking, on the improvement of usage—however commendable the aims—seems something less than fundamental education.

Thus, the need exists, along with the unwillingness of colleges and universities, to seek a real answer. With few exceptions, I find no speech department, no English department, no education college that is presently reorganizing traditional course content and structure to provide adequate preparation in oral English.

2. A New Stress on the Psychology of Language Learning

Related clearly to concern with oral language—indeed if not suggesting one possible solution to the problem—is the need to provide more attention to psycholinguistics and to the psychology of language learning. Currently there is the important work of researchers like John Carroll, Wallace Lambert, William Jenkins, and Sol Saporta which has implications for secondary as well as elementary teachers. The joint report of the NCTE-IRA Committee on Reading and Linguistics—to appear soon in a volume published by the two associations—should offer useful leads in at least one aspect of the total concern. The NCTE volume on scholarship in the learning of language, now two years in the making, will provide a summary of work completed during the last five years in the various fields of language learning, a period in which Charles Ferguson, Director of the Center for Applied Linguistics, tells us we have learned more about the learning of language than in all previous history. And one can hope that part of the $700,000 which CAL has received for studying applications of linguistics to the teaching of English as a native language will be directed to a study of the learning of language.

But with respect to language learning, in contrast to my comments about oral language, I think that traditional course structure will permit the modification of teacher education programs. Virtually all teachers are required to complete work in educational psychology. Could not—should not—this offering be modified or strengthened so that prospective English teachers learn not only the traditional psychology of learning, but the psychology of language learning? One solution might be to organize special classes or sections, requiring that 50 percent of the psychological content be standard for all teachers and 50 percent be of narrower concern—a study of the psychology of subject matter. Conceivable approaches might include special discussion sections, team teaching, or visiting subject specialists. Admittedly, for elementary teachers, attention must be devoted to several subject matters, making necessary a special course; but I would also emphasize again that some 40 to 60 percent of the time of every elementary teacher is devoted to the teaching of English. In reorganizing

programs for preparing elementary teachers, we cannot permit a false and pernicious egalitarianism to lead us to equate English with other fields in the elementary school.

One possible approach is suggested by an experimental proposal at the University of Illinois, possibly to be cosponsored by the Illinois state curriculum center, but initiated by a joint committee of specialists in English and education, which next year may provide a special section of educational psychology for prospective English teachers. These students will study the basic principles of psychology in relation to illustrations from English. For example, they may study measurement and evaluation by reviewing standardized tests in reading and language, or analyze the characteristics of children and adolescents by noting especially their linguistic characteristics. With the complete cooperation of the chairman of the educational psychology course, the planners hope that students will be introduced to a number of basic psychological studies in our field—to the works of Walter Loban, Kellogg Hunt, and to Mildred Riling's work on language development; to the Zidonis-Bateman study of transformational grammar and composition; to the Braddock report on research in written composition. Ultimately, perhaps, ISCPET, or NCTE, or CEE, or some commercial company may publish a book of supplementary readings on the psychological aspects of language learning to be used in similar courses throughout the nation.[6] I am not certain that we at Illinois have the answer, but I think we are moving in the right direction.

3. A Vigorous Reappraisal of Supervision of Student Teaching

Everything we have learned about teacher education—indeed, every major recent conference of specialists on teacher education—recognizes the significance of the student teaching or internship experience in permanently affecting the quality of instruction of any teacher. The Conant Study strongly reveals this fact; so does the important new Northwestern conference report on Innovation in Teacher Education. Similarly, the study of teachers in the 158 high schools in the National Study of High School English Programs considers the critical period of induction to classroom methodology as the time which permanently determines the patterns of instruction which the teacher will adopt. Studies by Stroller, Jackson, Shafer, and others substantiate this basic finding.[7] NEA's TEPS Commission has issued a statement of standards for student teaching and its title, "Who's in Charge Here?" is both the most forceful and frightening statement in the bulletin.[8]

And I ask now, who *is* in charge here? It is small wonder that an increasing number of leaders in teacher education, including some members

---

[6] Since reporting this proposed program, I have been informed that the University of Minnesota plans to require of all future credential candidates a course in the psychology of language learning. This offers another important way of solving the problem, although it does add to already heavy, prescribed course requirements.

[7] Eliezer Krumbein (ed.), *Innovation in Teacher Education* (Evanston, Ill.: Northwestern University, 1966), p. 26.

[8] National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, *Who's in Charge Here?* (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1966).

of CEE, grow increasingly restless over the lack of attention, often complete disregard, that is shown toward supervised teaching in many college programs.

The Northwestern Conference report states:

> . . . In many institutions practice teaching is conducted in the most casual, sometimes chaotic, manner. In one major university, the director of student teachers [said] they had almost literally waved the student teachers goodbye at the beginning of the semester and greeted them again at the beginning of the next semester, with little opportunity to review them in between.[9]

Programs providing merely for occasional "visiting" by college staff members --at best perhaps two or three field visits and casual conferences during the course of a semester--seem directed more at pacifying schools that grudgingly accept cadet teachers than at helping these teachers. The practice also of assigning supervision to graduate students untrained in supervision, often untrained in English or English education at any advanced level, and unconcerned by administrative, academic, or even personal disposition, is nothing more than reprehensible. It is a practice which should be examined carefully by CEE if the organization is, as Robert C. Pooley predicted three years ago at its initial conference, to establish standards for teacher education in English.

The unpalatable fact is that supervision of student teachers is a function with no prescribed *status* on most large campuses today. It is the first responsibility which a staff member in English education sheds when he achieves permanent faculty status; indeed, he often avoids it from the beginning if he is vigorously seeking promotion. As John Goodlad states, "Usually no one supervises the supervisor of student teaching. Therefore, it is relatively easy for a supervisor to do his job as quickly and superficially as possible in order to get the papers out and gain the recognition which will get him promoted within the prevailing climate of the university. This situation will become more and more prevalent within the next decade, especially in the field of education, which feels it needs to be 'respectable'."[10]

Those who do enjoy supervision and understand its value must frequently sacrifice opportunities for promotion and recognition if they work too long at this level. How many associate and full professors of English or education regularly visit student teachers? Of the twelve distinguished members of the steering committee of CEE, only four even pretend to visit and confer with student teachers, and this is a minor aspect of their total load. Many of the leaders of this conference quite honestly are more concerned with advanced degrees or with curriculum projects than with the classroom preparation of beginning teachers. Two years ago, immediately after the CEE conference at the University of Illinois, a teacher attending the annual meeting confessed to me with some degree of shock, "Those people in CEE aren't even interested in classroom teaching. All they care about are graduate programs." She appeared to have forgotten that concern for research and program development can

---

[9] Krumbein, *loc. cit.*
[10] *Ibid.*, p. 27.

reflect basic concern for classroom teaching. But was she not right in suggesting that, like King Lear in his blindness, we have taken "too little time for this"?

To members of the Conference of English Education I say there is no more serious charge than that of resolving this discrepancy between what we know and what we do. If the members do not address themselves to the improvement of field experience in English, I ask who will? Others may review the new curriculum projects, examine the new criticism and the new linguistics, but who will provide the new teaching experience in English? The great teacher of English is not made in the Shakespeare course, or the composition course, or even in the methods class. He is made rather in the high school classroom under the informed, insightful guidance of supervising teacher and supervisor who know the subject English and know how to teach it. Were it possible to depend upon a large number of informed and competent classroom critic teachers, the present neglect by colleges would result in less permanent danger. But anyone involved in the placement of student teachers knows both the inevitable compromises that result and the cavalier attitudes with which English student teachers are shuffled around, often by school or college administrators lacking any understanding of the nature of English and its teaching.

The task before us is both large and perplexing, but somehow we must carry the full impact of our leaders in the teaching of English to the students during the critical training period which so influences their future attitudes and skills as English teachers. If we seriously assume the responsibilty of strengthening preservice programs in English education, we must discard the lesser things and see that the full force of our Dwight Burtons, Nick Hooks, Paul Olsons, Wallace Douglases, Robert Pooleys, Walter Lobans, Louise Rosenblatts, and their counterparts on every campus is felt among our beginning teachers —out in the field, in the classroom, at a time when it will pay off richly in future dividends. The responsibility for looking critically at this problem is clearly one that the profession can no longer ignore.

Few of the projects reported at the conference are concerned directly with student teaching. One that is not yet widely publicized, and is currently suffering some growing pains, is Temple University's regional center plan in which college instructors work intensively in various sections of the city and, likewise, teachers in each regional area. Not only do the twelve to fifteen cadet teachers meet regularly in a continuing seminar, but they are supervised directly by the college staff leader. Although I would wish to see more emphasis on subject identification in this program and greater involvement of senior staff members in directing the centers, the Temple plan seems to offer real possibilities.

4. An Awareness of All Forces Affecting English Education

I conclude this paper with perhaps an unnecessary warning. Important are the curriculum study centers and the great projects discussed at this conference—important not only for their immediate recommendations but for the sweep of energy and imagination which they have unleashed upon the

profession, an effect far greater than any concrete curriculum or research findings seen thus far.

Important also are the Project English Centers, the institute and fellowship programs, the research grants, the NASDTEC-MLA-NCTE certification guides, the CEEB Commission's work, the tremendous vision of the President of the United States concerning the role of education in our society. But as important as all these things are, I sense our doing a potential disservice to ourselves and our profession if we become concerned with innovation and change only in terms of announced projects. The month-long Dartmouth study seminar of scholars from three countries planned this fall by NCTE, MLA, and NATE may well result in bolder, more basic directions for the 1970's and 80's than any project yet announced *if* only because of the freedom from school organizational patterns which such an international seminar can provide.

The seminal ideas from which English programs of tomorrow will be created may emerge less from the government and the foundation than from the independent scholar in his study. Would Northrop Frye's *Anatomy of Criticism* be any less influential if it had been supported by a $500,000 contract? Would Wayne Booth's explorations in rhetoric be any less great? The future language instruction in our schools may be influenced more by the brilliant new texts by Owen Thomas and H. A. Gleason than by any work undertaken by CAL, the NCTE Commission on Language, or the Minnesota Curriculum Center. The elementary programs of the 1970's may well be more affected by the textbooks written by one man in Rome and issued by a commercial publisher than by a multitude of experimental studies.

It is not my intent to deprecate the splendid efforts in the many projects described at this conference. I say only that those of us concerned about the future of English teaching must watch carefully all developments in English research and scholarship so that we see both the forest and the trees. Let us not forget the continuing contributions of individuals.

Emerging from the projects are new insights which clearly indicate a tremendous potential for strengthening teacher education programs. Whether this potential can be wisely utilized in our schools will depend on the wisdom, persistence, and imagination of those concerned with English education and the teaching of English. As we consider the new ideas, let us think not only of what they mean for the schools—but of what they mean for us. What new fields of study? What new programs of self-study? What new advanced research? What new designs in course structure? The potential of the projects can ultimately be realized only if the boldness and excitement of many new English programs are matched by bold new programs in teacher education. The projects are showing us the way. But do we know enough? Do we have the courage to follow?

English for the Academically Talented

ROBERT C. SLACK, *Carnegie Institute of Technology*

Once upon a time, not so long ago, there stood a high, impenetrable wall. On the one side of this wall sat the proud, lordly institution of higher learning, an ivy-covered citadel where the scholars in the library and in the laboratory spun their marvelous webs of higher learning. This side of the wall was known as the "gown" side, so named for the black gowns with their long hanging hoods that since the Middle Ages have officially designated men devoted to higher studies and to specialized research, to an atmosphere more refined and purified than that of the ordinary world.

On the other side of the high wall was the "town," a comparatively vulgarized world in which the mass of men went about their business, pursuing mostly the twin goals of power or money. The town had its education; it was called "public education." With good to reasonable success it prepared the younger generation to take its place in the world, and a fairly small proportion of them it prepared to enter the gate through the wall to spend four years in the enchanted land of learning.

But always the high wall was there, and everybody thought it was quite real. Even if the university were geographically in the center of the city, the high wall separated the two. The scholars in the university and the teachers in the public schools rarely joined forces, though a central purpose of their activity was presumably the same thing, educating the young.

That was once upon a time and not so very long ago. But the high walls have been breached; indeed, today they are coming down all across the land. I have been privileged to be a part of this movement, and I propose to suggest today how what seemed a limited objective seven years ago has snowballed in magnitude and in significance.

The story begins in 1958, when two members of the history department of Carnegie Institute of Technology attended the annual Advanced Placement history conference. They became enthusiastic over the possibilities of such a program, and they persuaded the English department to join them in an effort to develop Advanced Placement courses in the Pittsburgh area. Together we called upon Calvin Gross, then superintendent of the Pittsburgh schools. "Let's try together to design college-level courses in history and English that will be taught by your teachers in your high schools, for which your students will receive college credit when they enter the college of their choice." Dr. Gross had already been thinking about the Advanced Placement program, and he was delighted to cooperate fully with Carnegie Tech.

A program of this sort costs a great deal of money to get started. Fortunately, the Fund for the Advancement of Education and the A. W. Mellon Educational and Charitable Trust saw merit in our proposal and between them granted $87,500 to make possible an unprecedented cooperation between a private college and a large urban school system.

Throughout the spring of 1959, teachers of English and history from Carnegie Tech and from the Pittsburgh high schools worked long hours together designing college-level courses in their subjects. Edwin Fenton and I were the Carnegie Tech representatives, and both of us were impressed with the intellectual quality and the fine educational ideas of the star city high school teachers with whom we were working. The courses were whipped into shape in the spring, and in the summer of 1959 we held on the Tech campus a new kind of summer institute, one in which college teachers and high school teachers rolled up their sleeves and worked together over the new courses and the appropriate teaching methods and materials. These teachers were going to teach the course in the following year, and they took their work seriously.

In the first year of the program, Dr. Fenton and I were teaching Advanced Placement courses in a city high school, and two of the city high school teachers were offering basic English and history courses at Carnegie Tech. This degree of interinvolvement was a new thing. Other schools in the Greater Pittsburgh area wanted to take part in the program, too. And so, in 1960 there was a second summer institute, and in 1961, a third, with the Advanced Placement courses being instituted in new schools each year. By now there are over thirty school systems, most of them in the Pittsburgh area, offering our Advanced Placement courses to about a thousand high school students each year. In the national picture of the Advanced Placement Program what has happened in Pittsburgh is a unique and exciting story.

But the program was clearly growing too big for its original breeches. This was the time that somebody needed to come along. And, miraculously, somebody did. The Office of Education let it be known that it was able to consider proposals concerned with English curricula. It was a perfectly timed opportunity. What the whole program in Pittsburgh needed at just that moment was the time and the money to plan a full senior high school English program for able college-bound students; not just for the top two or three percent who might properly be assigned to an Advanced Placement course—but for the upper fifth of high school students, which includes the largest share of the young persons aiming for college.

This seemed to us a most welcome—if rather awesome—extension of the area in which we had begun to work. It was a quarter of a million dollar operation, and it was instituted under the name of Project English.

In the summer of 1962 the Curriculum Study Center at Carnegie Tech was in business. Our plan of operation involved seven secondary schools in Greater Pittsburgh, in which the new courses would be tested in the classroom. The courses were planned during the summers in cooperation with the high school teachers from the seven schools.

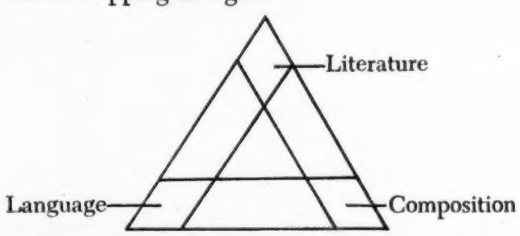
Currently these courses are being given in the schools to more than a

thousand students in the three grade levels, and there is expectation that this number will increase. Two members of the Carnegie Tech English department –Professors Beekman Cottrell and Lois Josephs–taught pilot sections of the program in different high schools during each of the three developmental years. Through the winters we have met with the high school teachers and have revised the courses in accordance with what has seemed most successful when actually presented in the classroom.

This winter, these courses, in the form of daily lesson plans for the three years of senior high school, are being issued by a Pittsburgh printing house. Vol. I, *The Tenth Grade*, appeared at the beginning of November; Vol. II came out in February and Vol. III in March.

I propose today to give you some notion of what these courses are like. We were committed to a program that would be "sequential" and "cumulative"; and we have taken these jargon words quite seriously and quite literally. What comes first should not come second, and what comes second should build upon what comes first.

Fortunately, the College Entrance Examination Board had come up with their familiar tripod–Literature, Composition, and Language Study. We felt that these three areas constituted an excellent definition of the subject of English. We saw them as each having a distinctive sort of content, and yet all three being closely interrelated. We saw them as overlapping triangles:



The literature has its own coherent body, but it does not stand alone. The composition largely uses the literature as subject matter for the student papers and consequently overlaps and reinforces the learning in literature. The language study has close ties with both of the other areas. A very small portion of each is individual and unrelated to the others; the larger portion of each overlaps significantly with one or with both of the others.

In order to structure our course plans, we had to determine how many days of classroom instruction should be given to each of the three areas. For better or for worse, we arbitrarily ended with the following proportion: 56 percent of the class periods were used for instruction in literature; 26 percent of the class periods were used for instruction in composition; and 18 percent of the class periods, for instruction in language study.

Let me say that we do not teach the literature all in one block and the composition in another and the language study in another. Each year of the program is divided into six or seven large units, and in each unit we are likely to be spending so many days on literature, so many on composition, and so many on language. We feel that instruction in composition and in language should be returned to throughout the school year and not be shelved away and forgotten about.

After settling on the three areas, we had many tremendous questions still

remaining. *What* literature was to be studied? When? What *kind* of study of it should come first? How could we devise a three year composition program which would be sequential and cumulative, which would introduce something *new* each year, and yet would at the same time be a reinforcement for all that the students had learned before?

We felt that inevitably the program would be structured by the literature area. We adopted a definition of literature which we could believe in: that literature is mankind's record of what it has been like to be alive, a record expressed in verbal art forms. The writer of literature is recording what it is like to be alive. He is after universal perceptions which will be valid for every age and for every culture, but he is necessarily bound by the particular time in which he lives and by the particular culture pattern which surrounds him.

These concepts of the nature of literature have given our course its fundamental design. We determined to emphasize one aspect of literature in each of the three years of the program. In the tenth grade we would give primary emphasis to the most fundamental. And we would do it with world literature in translation. The most fundamental concept is that the writer of literature anywhere is occupied with universal concerns of men everywhere, in every period of time. Universal concerns—such as love, heroism, human weakness, criticism of social institutions or practices, the search for wisdom—these have been human concerns and the concerns of literature in every age of recorded history. Our tenth grade course is structured primarily according to these concerns. In the eleventh grade, in which we study American literature, and in the twelfth, in which we study primarily English literature, these great themes, of course, continue to appear; but they are given secondary rather than primary emphasis in the last two grade levels.

I have said that we wished to give recognition in our program to how the culture pattern modifies literature. This is the primary emphasis of the eleventh grade course. The culture pattern our students know best is the American pattern; and as an additional reinforcement, they are taking American history also in the eleventh grade. Our literature course, therefore, is structured by various aspects of the American character as they are revealed in our literature: American Puritanism, the American desire to get ahead in the world, American optimism, and American critical realism, for instance. Now, how world literature and how English literature are modified by the environments in which they appear do get some attention in both the tenth and twelfth grades, but it is in the eleventh grade that this aspect of literature receives the strongest emphasis.

The most sophisticated perception about the nature of literature, we feel, is that it appears as a verbal art form. And we have made this characteristic the organizing principle of our twelfth grade course. We read several tales, as illustrated by Chaucer and Byron and Conrad; some examples of tragedy by Sophocles, Shakespeare, and Emily Brontë; some epics, featuring four books of *Paradise Lost;* some satires; some lyric poems; and so on. In this course the student is given his most explicit awareness of literary genres and forms. Of course, he has heard about some of these in the earlier years of the program. But it is in the twelfth grade that they become central in the course.

Thus in the three years of the literature program, we have striven to give a *new* center of emphasis to the literary study each year. We have not only gone into different areas of literature, but we have approached the apprehension of literature from a different point of view. By this procedure we hope to give the student the feeling that he is learning something new about literature each year, not just reading different books.

The composition program is closely allied to the literature. Most of the subjects for writing are found in the literature that the students are reading. In each year we give primary emphasis to a different aspect of composition.

In the tenth grade we give most emphasis to the composing of a paper; the writer's discovering what he really has to say; his isolating it from other things he might say; and his narrowing down to the subject—or *defining* it—in the process of thinking and in devising a composition. We feel that the major emphasis of the tenth grade work should fall here. In the eleventh grade we center the teaching emphasis on the writer's command of his language, on the precision with which he can use it. He still has to pay attention to discovering and defining his idea, but the major amount of classroom teaching is directed toward his mastery of the language. In the twelfth grade, we give major emphasis to the needs of the reader and to how the writer can shape his writing so that it will be most effective to the person who reads it. Thus each year of the composition program has also a new focus of emphasis. We are endeavoring not to repeat over and over again the same concerns.

The study of language has also been given a different center of emphasis each year. In the tenth grade, we give primary emphasis to the *structure* of the English language. Our approach is based on structural linguistic principles, rather than being a review of the traditional grammar which the students have been studying for the past five or six years. In the eleventh grade we move the center of emphasis to the study of semantics, the various kinds of meanings that words have and how they acquire these meanings. This emphasis in the language study, of course, ties in closely with the chief concern in the eleventh grade composition, the writer's command over the words he chooses. In the twelfth grade, the emphasis shifts to rhetoric, a concern with techniques of language usage which move or convince an audience or a reader. This work is consonant with the composition work of the twelfth grade, which also is concerned with the writer's awareness of the needs of his reader. The twelfth grade language program also introduces units on the history of the English language; and this material relates, of course, to the literature being read.

This is the basic theory of our whole three-year program. In each year we have tried to give special emphasis to something new, so that the students are aware of a sense of progression, are aware that each year of the program is making a greater challenge and at the same time is offering a greater reward to those who accept the challenge. We are sure that our program is sequential, and we believe that it is cumulative.

I think that you might be interested in the teaching method that the whole program stresses. We have called this method "inductive teaching."

At first glance, there may seem to be little difference between the theory

underlying this method and the theory underlying anything that might be called effective teaching. This theory assumes that the student learns through what he does; and I do not believe that anyone finds that surprising or is inclined to question it at all. However, when we begin to take this notion quite seriously and begin to apply it fully to our course planning as well as to what happens in our classroom, it can have profound and far reaching consequences.

This approach, I might say, is in harmony with the findings of modern psychology—especially with investigators of the cognitive processes like Jean Piaget. In a conference at Cornell a year and a half ago, Piaget made it clear what he sees as the goal in education. He said:

> The question comes up whether to teach the [idea] structure [in a subject], or to present the child with situations where he is active and creates the structure himself. . . . The goal in education is not to increase the amount of knowledge, but to create the possibilities for a child to invent and discover. . . . Teaching means creating situations where structures can be discovered; it does not mean transmitting structures which may be assimilated at nothing other than a verbal level.[1]

The successful teacher does not impart information, says Piaget, which may be taken in only at a verbal level; at its best, teaching is creating situations in which the child will discover for himself.

Commenting on the implications of Piaget's theory, Lee Cronbach speaks of providing the child "with a guided sequence to maximize the possibility of early discovery."[2] This, it seems to me, is a very apt description of the inductive approach. In planning a course, one conceives of it not just as an outline of subject matter, but as a sequence of experiences for the students which will be likely to cause them to discover for themselves whatever it is we hope that they will learn.

The teacher does not tell or show the students, through lecture or through demonstration, what he wishes them to know. Instead, he faces them with a problem to be solved, a poem to be understood, a composition to be written (or, later, a written composition to be evaluated); and through these activities the students grow in their understanding of the subject matter.

To see how this process works, let me draw upon the twelfth grade unit in lyric poetry. Our major purpose is to cause the students to become aware of the essential characteristics of lyric poetry. We have, by and large, followed Brooks and Warren's designation of what these essential characteristics are, and we have structured our first poetry unit according to these characteristics. The lessons are designed to put emphasis upon four basic qualities: tone, the dramatic situation, imagery, and theme.

Since our first concern is tone, we begin the poetry unit with the teacher's reading to the class Sir John Suckling's

> Out upon it! I have loved
> Three whole days together;

---

[1] Richard E. Ripple and Verne H. Rockcastle (eds.), *Piaget Rediscovered* (Ithaca, N. Y.: Cornell University, 1964), p. 3.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 66.

And am like to love three more,
If it prove fair weather.

He then reads Shakespeare's sonnet:

Let me not to the marriage of true minds
Admit impediments. Love is not love
Which alters when it alteration finds. . . .

The students have the poems before them, of course, and they follow with their eyes the teacher's reading.

And then we begin to discuss the two poems. We ask the students if the poems sound alike when they are read aloud; if they should be read in the same tone of voice. Of course, the students see immediately that one is a flippant and cavalier attitude toward love and the other a serious and highly idealistic attitude, and that the tone of voice in which each should be read must differ. At this point the teacher introduces a definition of the word *tone* as it is applied to poetry; that tone is "the attitude of the author toward his subject matter as this is revealed in the literary work." Obviously this definition comes directly from Brooks and Warren.

We then begin to look more closely at the two poems to see how in each instance the writer has achieved the tone. One thing that students are sure to bring out is that the language in one is more conversational and free and in the other is more formal and "thoughtful" in character. Some of them may see that the images in the Shakespeare sonnet refer to steadfast objects or ideas and that the speaker in that poem is making a firmer commitment.

After arriving at these perceptions about the difference of tone in the two poems, the students are asked to look carefully at both poems and work out the plain-sense meaning of each. There are some problems—especially in the Shakespeare sonnet—which can open up for them new worlds in the possibilities of language.

For their homework, the students are asked to summarize the day's lesson in a paragraph of approximately 150 words. This requires them to recall what happened in class and to pick out the main point of the lesson—which, hopefully, will be that "tone" is something to look for in a lyric poem.

Now, let me review certain characteristics of this lesson. The teacher did not begin with a little lecture on the lyric poem as a type, or on Sir John Suckling and Cavalier poetry, or on Shakespeare and the sonnet, or on what tone in poetry is—or on anything at all. Instead he faced the students squarely with the two poems themselves, the things we are really concerned about. Then, instead of *telling* the students anything, he directed their attention to one quite marked difference between the two poems and asked them to tell him what the nature of this difference is; and only *after* they have been talking about tone does the teacher give them the term, because by this time they need to have the word to identify what they have been talking about. The homework assignment asks the students—not the teacher—to review the day's lesson and to find in it what the essential concern of the classroom period has been. In other words, a set of

situations has been designed through which the student must almost necessarily learn by discovery.

On the second day of the poetry unit, the teacher brings before the class two other poems which differ widely in tone. After a second experience, the students have become aware of what tone is in a lyric poem, and they are beginning to see how this characteristic can be recognized. On the third day of the unit, we shift our attention to another characteristic of lyric poetry. We concern ourselves with the fact that--as Brooks and Warren say it--"every poem is a little drama." The teacher reads aloud the ballad "Edward" and begins by asking the class what kind of person the speaker is, what the situation is in this poem, and how much the situation itself contributes to the effectiveness of the poem.

The lessons on tone and dramatic situation are followed by four days in which we look carefully at the imagery in a few poems. Throughout the whole unit--in all the lessons on tone in poetry, on dramatic situation, on imagery, and on theme--a similar (but constantly varying) technique is used. Poems are not assigned in advance but are read for the first time in class, so that the whole of the reading experience is something that involves successful discovery on the part of the students.

The lessons on imagery begin with Shakespeare's sonnet:

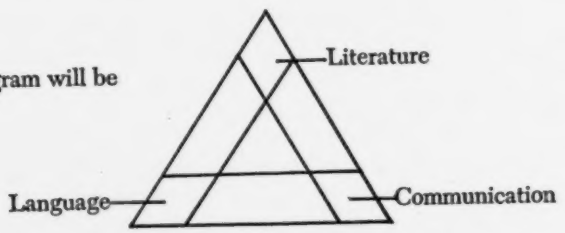
> That time of year thou mayst in me behold
> When yellow leaves, or none, or few, do hang
> Upon those boughs which shake against the cold,
> Bare ruin'd choirs, where late the sweet birds sang. . . .

After reading the sonnet aloud, we begin the discussion on familiar ground. First we ask the students to tell us what they know about the person who is speaking in this sonnet--what, in short, the dramatic situation is. They see clearly enough that the speaker is growing old and that his loss of youth is of grave concern to him. This supplies the poem with its essential dramatic tension, which is apparent at first reading.

Once this central concern of the poem is established, we direct the students' attention to the pictures that the speaker is using to communicate his situation and how he feels about it. We ask the students what the "yellow leaves, or none, or few" and what the boughs shaking against the cold communicate to the reader; why the poet calls these boughs "bare ruin'd choirs"; whether "choirs" is literal or whether it means something other than real choirs; if so, what it does mean--and so on; until the students begin to say explicitly that the word pictures connote not only the general mood of late autumn to the reader, but--since this is the autumn of the speaker's life--they communicate with precision and with richness the bareness of *his* present and the tug of nostalgia at remembrance of *his* springtime and summer, when the now yellow leaves were rich and green and the now bare branches were filled with singing birds. The images, thus, have a secondary meaning more important to the poem than their literal statement; they are, in short, figurative. After the students have seen the way in which the images are functioning in this poem,

Basic Theory

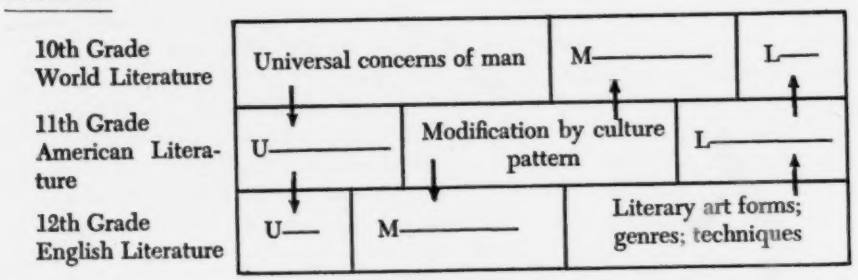
The three areas of the program will be interrelated throughout.



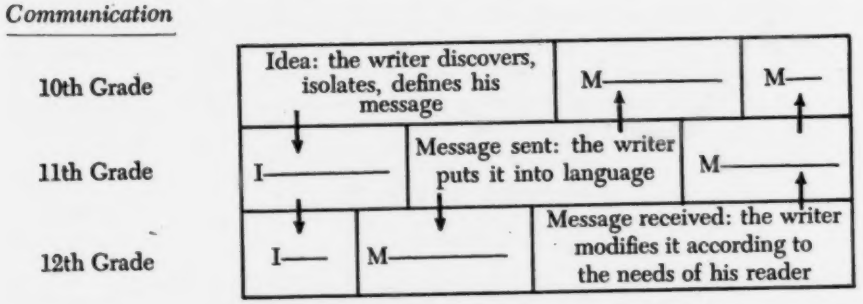
Pattern of Emphasis

All basic concepts are dealt with in all years; only the amount of teaching time and the degree of emphasis change. For instance, in the 10th grade literature program, most teaching time will be spent on the universal concerns of man, less on modification by culture pattern, and still less on literary art form. In the 12th grade, the emphasis will be reversed.

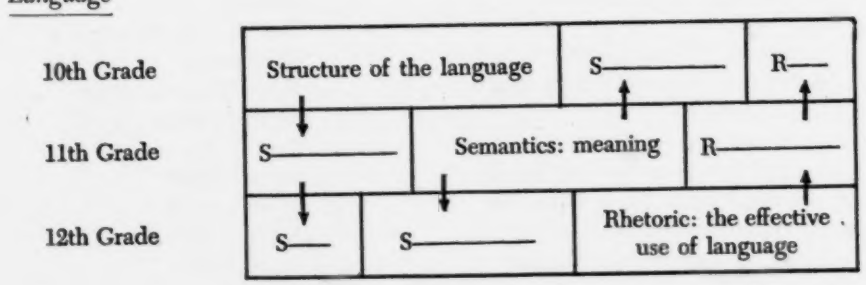
Literature



Communication



Language



we give them the standard vocabulary to use—such words as *image, figurative language, metaphor, simile,* and *personification.* Please note that we give them the vocabulary only after *they* have arrived at the perception of these matters in an actual poem.

Each day in class the students are faced with the raw experience—the poem itself—and each day they come by their own efforts to some perception that furthers their understanding of this poem, and of poetry in general. The more they have contributed and the *less* the teacher has contributed to arriving at this understanding, the better. This is the inductive process at work.

But don't think that, in this process, the teacher has been inactive. The teacher has been a practicing artist—like the conductor of a symphony orchestra who never plays a note himself but is responsible for the whole effect. This is a style of teaching that the whole of the Project English program has been designed for. The teachers who have employed it have found it exciting and rewarding for themselves and for their students.

So far the courses seem to have gone well. The teachers have been enthusiastic about them; so have the students, particularly about the literature they read. The program includes a whole tableful of books, some of the most exciting books in the world. In the tenth grade the students encounter such works as Rostand's *Cyrano de Bergerac,* Remarque's *All Quiet on the Western Front,* the *Iliad,* Moliere's *The Miser,* and Schweitzer's thoughtful and idealistic *Memoirs of Childhood and Youth.* In the eleventh grade they read American writers from Benjamin Franklin and Mark Twain through Arthur Miller and Robert Frost. In the twelfth grade, they read tales from Chaucer through Conrad, novels from Brontë's *Wuthering Heights* through Greene's *The Heart of the Matter,* dramas from *Macbeth* through T. S. Eliot's *The Cocktail Party.*

But this is not just a tableful of books; it is a *mind*-full. The students in this program are having a new world opened up for them. And all because the high wall of not so many years ago that kept the college and the public school apart has really begun to crumble.

BOOKS PURCHASED

GRADE 10

Masterpieces of the Orient ed. by Anderson	Norton paper
Famous Chinese Short Stories retold by Yutang	Washington Square paper
A Tale of Two Cities by Dickens	Modern Library hard
Six Plays by Ibsen	Modern Library paper
All Quiet on the Western Front by Remarque	Crest paper
A Child's Christmas in Wales by Thomas	New Directions paper
The Cradle Song by Sierra	Samuel French paper
Cyrano de Bergerac by Rostand	Bantam paper
The Iliad of Homer trans. by Richards	Norton paper
The Medieval Myths ed. by Goodrich	Mentor paper
Julius Caesar by Shakespeare	Folger Library hard
The Death of Ivan Ilych by Tolstoy	Signet paper

The Miser by Molière	Penguin Classic paper
Memoirs of Childhood and Youth by Schweitzer	Macmillan paper
Wind, Sand and Stars by de Saint-Exupéry	Harbrace Modern Classic
The Plague by Camus	Modern Library hard
plus	
Readings in World Literature (2 vols.)	collected by the Carnegie Curriculum Study Center

GRADE 11

The Crucible by Miller	Bantam paper
Four American Novels ed. by Fuller, Achtenhagen	Harcourt Brace
Great American Short Stories ed. by Stegner	Dell Laurel paper
Ethan Frome by Wharton	Scribner paper
Mentor Book of Major American Poets ed. by Williams, Honig	Mentor paper
Benjamin Franklin: Autobiography & Other Writings ed. Lemisch	Signet paper
The Rise of Silas Lapham by Howells	Modern Library paper
Famous American Plays of the 1940's sel. by Hewes	Dell Laurel paper
The Great Gatsby by Fitzgerald	Scribner paper
Basic Selections from Emerson ed. by Lindeman	Mentor paper
Walden by Thoreau	Signet paper
O Pioneers! by Cather	Sentry paper
Modern American Literature ed. by Duffey	Rinehart paper
Three Plays by Wilder	Bantam paper
Great Tales and Poems of Edgar Allan Poe	Washington Square paper
Mid-Century ed. by Prescott	Pocket paper
Six Modern American Plays intro. by Halline	Modern Library hard
The Jungle by Sinclair	Signet paper
Adventures of Huckleberry Finn by Twain	Washington Square paper
Babbitt by Lewis	Signet paper
Three Plays by Eugene O'Neill	Modern Library hard
The Unvanquished by Faulkner	Signet paper

GRADE 12

Sir Gawain and the Green Knight trans. by Stone	Penguin Classic paper
The Canterbury Tales by Chaucer	Penguin Classic paper
Selected Poetry and Letters of Byron	Rinehart paper
Heart of Darkness & Secret Sharer by Conrad	Signet paper
Macbeth by Shakespeare	Crofts Classic paper
Wuthering Heights by E. Brontë	Modern Library paper
Introduction to Literature: Poems by Altenbernd, Lewis	Macmillan paper
Beowulf trans. by Morgan	California paper

Paradise Lost by Milton	Rinehart paper
Plays by Shaw	Signet paper
Gulliver's Travels by Swift	Dell Laurel paper
Great Expectations by Dickens	Rinehart paper
Far From the Madding Crowd by Hardy	Riverside paper
The Horse's Mouth by Cary	Harper's Modern Classic
The Heart of the Matter by Greene	Compass paper
The Admirable Crichton by Barrie	French paper
The Cocktail Party by Eliot	Harvest paper
The Theban Plays trans. by Watling	Penguin Classic paper

New Programs for the Disadvantaged

GARDA W. BOWMAN, *Bank Street College of Education*

Henri Bergson, the eminent French philosopher, was once invited to present a paper at an International Congress of Philosophers. Instead, Bergson sent a message—one sentence—which he felt gave the essence of what he wanted to say to the Congress. It read: "Act as men of thought; think as men of action." This episode came vividly to mind as I was preparing my paper before the Conference on English Education, since language is the bridge between thought and action. Surely thoughtful and responsible action is impossible for those who are unable to communicate adequately with the world around them.

It is a truism that one of the most obvious deficits in the disadvantaged child's repertory of skills is in the area of communication, at least in standard English. This gap in the cognitive map of the disadvantaged person is a prime source of frustration and frequently results in either withdrawal or violent attack against the whole system in which he sees no meaningful place for himself. When standard English is seen as the *sine qua non* of academic achievement, the child whose mode of expression is different from the norm and whose self concept has been damaged in innumerable ways finds reinforcement of his sense of inadequacy in his school experience. The child, feeling rejected, rejects school, and for him thought and action are inevitably divided.

Today, with ever increasing awareness of the special needs of pupils who have been environmentally disadvantaged, teachers recognize two urgent needs of their own: first, for a more sensitive understanding of the life conditions, history, culture, and psychological conditioning of their disadvantaged pupils; and second, for knowledge of and experience with specific teaching strategies so that they may translate these new understandings into actual classroom behavior. The National Council of Teachers of English, recognizing these needs, employed a Task Force on Teaching English to the Disadvantaged which, as you all know, has made an impressive contribution in both these dimensions; *i.e.*, understanding of the disadvantaged and strategies for teaching the poor, the segregated, and the environmentally handicapped in every sense. At the risk of repeating material that is familiar, I would like to refer to this significant study as the framework for my talk. I shall attempt to move from the report of the NCTE Task Force to the study recently conducted by the Bank Street College of Education on the preparation of school personnel to work with disadvantaged children and youth. There is much in common in the findings and recommendations of these two studies, but the latter, for which I was

privileged to serve as Research Coordinator, is more extensive in scope since it deals with teaching all teachers to work with the disadvantaged rather than being concerned with the teaching of English alone. Necessarily the study with which I was associated, by its very breadth, loses the depth and intensity which characterize the work of the NCTE Task Force.

One significant aspect of the findings of the Task Force seemed to me their skillful handling of this duality of need among teachers of the disadvantaged. Their sensitive development of the basic need of understanding the causal factors for language inadequacies among the disadvantaged was coupled with an immediate reinforcement of the teacher's confidence in the classroom by the specificity of recommendations for teaching strategies to cope with the basic problems which had been identified. The listing of misconceptions regarding the teaching of language to the disadvantaged in the Task Force report vividly illustrates this blending of principles and practices. I shall condense the list of misconceptions in the interest of time:

1. That "telling" is teaching
2. That "discovery" is appropriate only for advantaged children
3. That teaching reading is a responsibility of the elementary school alone
4. That the mechanics of reading must precede reading for enjoyment
5. That, to effect change, the teacher must tax students at the vulnerable point of language inadequacy, while failing to take advantage of new educational media
6. That teaching language is teaching grammar alone
7. That there is one prevailing English dialect
8. That the way to teach English is to substitute standard items for nonstandard items instead of working with language patterns
9. That there is one answer—*the* answer—to the multiple problems of reaching the child who has been deeply hurt by his environment.

In the proceedings of the Bloomington, Indiana, Conference of 1964 on Social Dialects and Language Learning, also sponsored by the National Council of Teachers of English (in this instance in cooperation with the Illinois Institute of Technology), the mutual reinforcement of understandings and strategies is also apparent. Alexander Frazier of Ohio State University, in his paper on Language Underdevelopment, differentiates among three types of language problems:

1. True verbal destitution
2. Full but nonstandard development
3. Unconceptualized experience.

He urges that children be permitted to operate in the dialect of their community at the lower levels of elementary education so that they will learn to conceptualize their experience in the full but nonstandard idiom with which they are familiar, before they are required to become bilingual, that is, before learning to speak both standard and nonstandard English. Throughout the report of this conference runs the theme that nonstandard English is *different but NOT inferior*—a revolutionary concept which eliminates the crushing blow to the child's ego resulting from insensitive handling of the shift from the

language which has served him well in his own milieu to the language which will serve him best in the broader community. In fact, the essence of the message is that there should be no shift at all but rather the addition of another form of expression for use in appropriate situations.

Turning from the exciting and insightful studies conducted by the National Council of Teachers of English to the more extensive approach of Project AWARE, the study conducted by the Bank Street College of Education last summer, we find that programs for teachers of the disadvantaged throughout the country tended to focus primarily upon understandings—the essential first step—sometimes without taking the second step of integrating the new understandings with the actual learning-teaching process. Attitudinal change without behavioral change often resulted from this limited approach.

First, a few words about the methodology of the study. The purpose of Project AWARE was threefold: (1) to describe selected programs designed to improve the knowledge, skills and attitudes of school personnel for working with disadvantaged children and youth; (2) to identify unique and significant elements of such programs; and (3) to develop basic concepts and guidelines for emerging programs of this type. "Disadvantaged" for the purposes of this study is defined as environmentally disadvantaged—that is to say economically, socially, and/or educationally handicapped.

Four populations were studied so as to survey both preservice and inservice programs as well as those financed by the federal government under special legislation. The populations were (1) Programs in Colleges of Teacher Education and in Departments of Education in Institutions of Higher Learning; (2) Inservice Programs in Selected School Systems; (3) Summer Institutes for Teachers of Disadvantaged Youth, financed under Title XI of the National Defense Education Act; and (4) Teacher Education Programs financed under the Economic Opportunity Act.

Data were collected through written questionnaires and site visitations to selected programs. There were 1,127 questionnaires distributed to the populations listed above which brought in 503 replies, a 45 percent response. Of the 503 questionnaires, 209 described programs specifically designed for teaching the disadvantaged, while the remainder dealt with ways in which these concepts were incorporated into the total teacher education programs of school systems and institutions of higher learning.

Members of an advisory committee, specialists from various disciplines and staff, visited 59 programs in every part of the country. The reports of these visits and the written comments of more than 1,000 enrollees were important components of the data. Of the 59 programs visited, 35 were NDEA summer institutes for teachers of disadvantaged youth, 13 were Office of Economic Opportunity teacher education programs, 9 were conducted by school systems, and 3 by institutions of higher learning without NDEA or OEO financing.

The reports of the site visits were analyzed from three perspectives: the programs as perceived by the directors, by the enrollees, and by the AWARE team members. Both strengths and weaknesses were observed, and the accomplishments were analyzed in terms of purpose and rationale.

It was fascinating to trace the progression from purpose to content and finally to achievement. In the NDEA institutes where written comments by more than a thousand enrollees provided significant data as to what the participants perceived they had gained from the experience, this progression from purpose to content to accomplishment had special meaning. The directors of these institutes reported in their responses to the written questionnaires a balanced intent including the twin goals of (1) deepening understanding of the disadvantaged pupil, and (2) developing new teaching strategies, skills, and materials. However, there was imbalance with respect to the curricular undergirding of these two purposes. When program directors were asked to react to suggested content areas which would implement their purposes, the response to items dealing with understanding the disadvantaged was tremendous; but the response to items dealing with teaching strategies, skills, and materials was meager. It was posited by the researchers that this discrepancy between expressed intent and plans for the implementation of intent was due in large part to the inadequacies of educational resources directly related to teaching strategies, skills, and materials for working with disadvantaged children and youth. The paucity of such resources is in sharp contrast to the richness of expertise, literature, audiovisual materials, and other media concerning the social and developmental facets of the problem.

The crucial test of the degree to which purposes were implemented lies not in the planning of the directors but in the product itself; namely, the perception of the participants as to the degree to which the basic goals of the institutes seemed to have been realized. More than 6,000 comments (approximately 6 per person) were overwhelmingly positive in relation to the understandings which had been gained, but the change most frequently desired was that there be more emphasis upon translating these new understandings into teaching behavior. This response would seem to indicate that in those areas where instructional content was readily available (as in the case of understandings), the impact was massive, but in those areas where instructional content was not as readily available or was given low priority in program planning (as in the case of teaching strategies and techniques), the impact was relatively unimpressive.

The program emphasis (or, in the judgment of the researchers, imbalance) may reflect the theory adhered to by many directors—that if a teacher has the desire to reach out to the disadvantaged he will find the way in terms of his own teaching style and of the local situation. Directors with such an approach stressed the WHY and minimized the HOW of teaching disadvantaged children and youth. Still another possible causal factor for the focus on understandings rather than on teaching behavior may have been the short duration of the summer institutes, which required concentration on one objective alone. The directors opted for understandings as the most fundamental kind of learning, when they believed that they were forced to choose between attitudes and teaching behavior as the primary goal.

One striking datum was that in those institutes where there was a practicum —*i.e.*, an opportunity for a teaching experience under close supervision—the discrepancy between understandings and techniques gained by the participants

was definitely less than in those institutes which provided no opportunity for experiential learning. The practicum appeared to be a powerful force for innovation, self-evaluation, and consequently for growth, as persons and as teachers. Thus, where content was inadequate, process compensated. However, the practicum was far more than a compensatory device. It was found that learning to teach within a context of reality increased coping behavior and served to channel the zeal and fervor generated by the institute in an unbroken stream from the institute experience to on-the-job experience.

More important, perhaps, than the discrepancy between understandings and application was the quality and tone of the understandings which participants believed they had gained. There was first the developmental, affective dimension—understanding of the individual child—which appeared to be the cornerstone upon which teaching strategies for work with the disadvantaged was built. These insights are indeed essential to effective teaching of all children but are crucial in working with those whose sense of identity and self concepts have suffered cruel blows and for whom feelings of acceptance, connectedness, and potency are desperately needed. Among the most frequent comments in this category were these:

—Belief in every child's potential
—Understanding the effects of the emotional needs of the disadvantaged child upon his learning ability and his behavior
—Understanding the need to enrich and use the child's own experiences and provide him with an opportunity for early success.

The realization of the essentiality of the teacher's diagnostic and prescriptive role in relation to each individual child is warmly described in one participant's own words: "If we, as teachers, will accept that with which the child comes to us and build upon it, we will have taken a giant step."

Understanding the values, history, culture, life conditions, and special problems of disadvantaged children and youth was frequently reflected in the participants' comments. Again, to use the respondents' own words, we find such poignant sentences as these:

—I have taught for 15 years in a disadvantaged area but I am shocked to find that I knew so little about the background of my pupils. I had walked to and from school without ever really seeing the neighborhood.
—I see now that most economically deprived parents love their children but the strain of survival is so great that it leaves little time to devote to them.
—The word "disadvantaged" has come to have many new meanings for me. I see that a child can be disadvantaged in any one of a number of ways and not in other ways.
—The deprived person is not antagonistic to education but to schools.
—It has been interesting to me to learn that what these children *want* from life is quite different from what they *expect* from life.
—I have learned that achievement is relative.
—Schools and their staffs are so terribly isolated from the communities in which they are located and which they are supposed to serve.
—The curriculum will have to be changed in order that the revolutionary changes arising in our society may be met by the schools.

Turning from the more global comments to those which relate specifically to teaching behavior—found more frequently as indicated before in institutes with a practicum—we are able to identify some imaginative strategies, illustrated thus: "I see my role as a teacher to be perceptive enough to discover where a child is, accept him at that point in his development, and then to take him as far as he can go, to the best of my ability."

To many, this kind of approach was grounded in a new realization that the child is quick to pick up clues as to whether the teacher believes in him or unconsciously discounts any possibility of achievement. This was expressed by one participant: "Teachers must avoid words or actions which may be interpreted as condescension."

The disadvantaged child's particular need for the concrete, the kinesthetic, was stressed: "One successful technique is to let children touch, feel, try out ideas, explore, and make things on their own."

The restlessness and resistance to rigid structure in the classroom was perceived by some participants; for example:

> We know that the objectives for disadvantaged children are the same as for all children, but procedures and methods must be altered to meet the motor-sensory style of learning.
>
> A quiet room is not always the most educational. I have learned to create environments in which children feel safe enough to dare.

Communication was seen as a two-way process, requiring new learnings by both teacher and pupil:

> We have accepted failure to reach the child too readily and have been willing to ascribe it to his lack of motivation rather than to our lack of appropriate skills.
>
> One can teach almost any subject to any child once the avenues of communication have been opened up.
>
> It is important for teachers of these children to allow them to express themselves in the language that is familiar to them—at least during the early years of adjustment to school.
>
> I now perceive that subject matter is not the core of our contributions to children in schools. The freedom to express themselves and to act is the important thing that children can take away.

These verbatim quotes reveal similarity in both broad conceptualization and concrete application of theory to the principles and practices recommended by the NCTE Task Force. The points which have been made to date relate to the professional and personal development of individual teachers. Another dimension was the imaginative programing in many of the institutes. In one, a parallel learning situation for teachers and practicum pupils was provided, so that teachers observed pupils struggling with the same problems of self-expression and literary exploration with which they themselves were involved. The course content dealt with poetic theory with emphasis on writing poetry. At first the teachers (broken into subgroups of 15 each) observed a master

teacher working with 22 tenth and eleventh grade pupils from schools in a disadvantaged urban area. The pupils discussed poetry by William Carlos Williams and e. e. cummings and selected prose works by Ernest Hemingway, Richard Wright, and George Orwell. They also discussed poetry that the pupils themselves were writing. Free discussion was guided by questioning, but never dominated by teacher synthesis, in an atmosphere of acceptance of whatever the pupil wanted to contribute. Meantime, the teacher participants read and discussed the same books, with emphasis on the relationship between the teacher participant as a person and "poetry" itself. Poetry written by the teacher participants was duplicated and became the center of many class analyses. This parallel learning made a profound impression on the participants, as evidenced by their written evaluations of the institute. The teachers had an opportunity to see pupils from their own school area operating in an atmosphere of freedom in which they proved to be highly motivated and highly educable. The teacher participants appeared eager to go back to their own schools with an increased commitment to the education of such youth.

Another institute focused on teaching English to Mexican-Americans. Situated in a community where the public educational system has been traditionally geared to the native, English-speaking child, and where 80 percent of the beginning first graders from a non-English background fail in their initial school experience, the institute was designed to improve the attitudes, knowledge, and special skills of elementary school teachers for working with children from economically disadvantaged homes in which there was a language barrier. The emphasis in the program was on developing new materials and techniques, using experiential, conceptual, and linguistic "build-ups" based on "culture-fair" science content. The approach was interdisciplinary, dealing with the psychological, sociological, and economic factors affecting the learning of these children. Spanish culture and history were stressed.

The supervised practicum experience was central to the whole operation. Teacher participants were assigned in pairs to teach in the local public schools, where they worked with the classroom teacher, forming a three-member team. The institute participants worked with the children in intensive language pattern drills. They also used a variety of language activities, including songs, role playing, and puppetry. In addition to the one-hour practicum experience, there was a demonstration-lecture course in reading and a language laboratory course. The remainder of the time was spent in library assignments, materials preparation, and individual conferences with instructional staff. The feedback from these conferences revealed participant needs which resulted in immediate program modifications. The rapport between staff and enrollees appeared to be unusually strong, with ample opportunity for free discussion of disagreements. For example, the institute utilized a "patterning" approach to learning, but participants were not pressured into an unquestioning acceptance of this approach. In fact, when some participants expressed a different philosophy of learning, the director invited a consultant who was in basic agreement with the dissenters to lead a week-long seminar.

A unique feature of this institute was the impact of the experience upon the

egos of the Spanish-speaking teacher participants, who said they had, until this experience, been taught to forsake their Mexican culture. Urged at the institute to remember that they had roots in Mexico, they responded with pride in their heritage and a desire to insure their pupils' right to be proud of being Spanish-American.

These two specific programs are illustrative of the imaginative and varied programatic approaches which were observed by the AWARE Teams in many parts of the country. They lead to the specific recommendations which the Project made for programs which are based on foundation and government support. Time permits the presentation of only two major recommendations, one on content and the other on process, both followed by proposed steps for implementation.

Recommendation on Content:

That the instructional content integrate understanding of the disadvantaged with assistance in translating such understanding into teaching behavior.

PROPOSED STEPS FOR IMPLEMENTATION

1. A cognitive dimension that presents facts and develops understandings vis-a-vis the disadvantaged, and moves from myth to reality
2. A multidisciplinary approach combining sociology, psychology, anthropology, and related social and behaviorial studies
3. Orientation of outside lecturers to avoid repetition and irrelevancy
4. Involvement of the teaching staff in the sociological, anthropological, psychological, and economic content areas in actual school situations and in the community and family life
5. More emphasis on the diagnostic approach, *i.e.*, the analysis of each child's behavior as an individual, not as a member of any group; the possible causes of such behavior; and the teacher's responsibilities regarding child behavior and development
6. Demonstration of possible strategies, methods, and materials which have special application to working with disadvantaged children and youth
7. Analysis of demonstrations in terms of their relevance to a wide variety of situations, with emphasis on the necessity for adaptation to individual conditions
8. Participation in curriculum revision, remediation, and development of new materials.

Recommendation on Process:

That instructional process provide opportunity for experiential learnings.

PROPOSED STEPS FOR IMPLEMENTATION

1. A teaching field experience or practicum which has direction, is involved with children who are truly disadvantaged, and has components of supervision, self-analysis, and reflection
2. Opportunity for identifying and sharing the contributions of the participants in small group discussions
3. Utilizing the leadership skills of the participants in conducting discussions, making presentations, and participating in committee activities
4. Programs of group counseling and sensitivity training to encourage self-understanding and to build self-confidence in participants
5. Integration of affective, cognitive, and action components of the program, in an effort to achieve behavioral change
6. Development of more effective supervisory processes
7. Financing of action research to develop new teaching strategies, methods, and materials in this field and to test their adequacy.

Implications

From analysis of the data, there evolved not only recommendations for improving teacher education for work with the disadvantaged but also certain implications for the learning-teaching process in its totality. At this time in history special programs for teaching teachers of the disadvantaged appear to be necessary. However, many elements of such programs have meaning for meeting the needs of all students. They are simply more crucial for work with the disadvantaged.

Among the implications of this study which have universal application for teacher education are these:

1. That study of learning and thinking needs to be a basic component of every curriculum with focus upon understanding the use of language and the whole process of communication in relation to learning
2. That the diagnostic function of the teacher is of supreme importance if he is to design experiences for each individual pupil which will enable him to learn
3. That an interdisciplinary staff—a staff which sees various disciplines as they relate to each other and to the learning-teaching process—is essential to an integrative approach to learning
4. That experiential learning involving a high quality of supervision is critical in the application of theory to teaching behavior
5. That development of self awareness and the strengthening of self concept are essential needs of both teacher and pupil

6. That the instructional milieu of today's school requires a strong component of reality, including participation in community activities and involvement with the families of pupils in their home settings over a considerable period of time, rather than sporadic, disciplinary home visits

7. That an integrative approach to meeting the needs of pupils goes deeply into the whole fabric of society and requires the engagement of all segments of the institutional life of the community so that theorists and operationalists may enter into true dialogue toward their common goal of developing the latent potential of all pupils

8. That close, cooperative, continuing relationships need to be established between the schools and the institutions of higher learning

9. That, in addition to brief intensive, "institute-type" programs, the school system itself should assume responsibility for intensive professional development, and to this end create a cadre of creative, knowledgeable, nonthreatening staff members who will serve in consultative, supervisory, and training roles

10. That staff development should be multilevel, including the imaginative use of auxiliary personnel so as to free the teacher to perform those functions which are essentially professional in nature, while enhancing the process of communication and increasing individualized attention for pupils in the classroom

11. That a spirit of inquiry, search, and innovation pervade the structure and the curriculum of educational institutions.

In conclusion, Project AWARE found that the recognition by government of the centrality of the need for more effective teaching of teachers of the disadvantaged has served a catalytic function in our communities throughout the nation. The keen sense of direction of the NDEA programs and the flexibility and innovative qualities of the OEO programs have stimulated community-wide planning for teacher education within the social context. With ever increasing funds, models to adapt, and consultant services in program development provided by government agencies, the dreams of many educators are becoming in this decade a reality.

The pace of change today is beyond all our past dreaming. As some of our proximate goals are realized, we must raise our sights toward ultimate goals—toward using the infinitely precious tool of language to educate people who will truly "act as men of thought and think as men of action."

Two Programs for the Disadvantaged: Educational Services Inc. and the Princeton Summer Institute

LAWANA TROUT, *Central State College, Oklahoma*

My position reminds me of Alexander Pope's "Fools rush in where angels fear to tread." Treading on the topic of the disadvantaged may appear foolhardy for several reasons. First, it is difficult to get anyone to agree on who or what the disadvantaged are; politicians, educators, and government agencies offer different descriptions and definitions. Conceived in sincerity, like many educational labels, the word *disadvantaged* has been profaned. It has been mouthed by "do-gooders" who need to help others for their own conscience' sake. It has been stamped on projects by institutions who see ways to use their share of government funds. To some teachers *disadvantaged* may cover a multitude of students: the unwashed or the unlearned or the uninspired, those who swagger in the first day with, "Hey Teach," or those who sit in silence—sullen or afraid.

In the midst of expensive government projects and educational jargon, as a teacher of the disadvantaged, I sometimes stand aside and silently scream, "Where is the child? Why don't we understand him? How much of this will *actually* touch him?" For I know them as disillusioned students, bruised by a callous world; as rebels fenced in a barbed wire cage by an uncompromising society; as intellectually stunted learners who drift through mazes of words, concepts, and tests. I know them as satirical scholars who have been victims of test scores and placed in programs that insult their intelligence and their integrity. The teacher who cares for them can hear their hollow footsteps searching for identity in a society that is blind to them.

We also know Pope's "A little learning is a dangerous thing." The danger that we face in teaching these students is our "little learning" in regard to them. We conduct extensive projects for the disadvantaged, make studies of him, write books about him, but there are few enlightened teachers who can peel away the layers of protective veneer and see *how* the student thinks, *what* he feels, and *why* he behaves as he does. Why? Because most of his teachers grew up in a world completely different from the one he lives in. Geographically, they may have been only blocks apart, but, culturally and economically, the distances between them were immeasurable.

For example, we often expect them to respond to middle class morality codes which actually have no significance in their lives. When I was a counselor, one of the girls revealed that she was being promiscuous with her boy friend. Many teachers condemned her actions with, "She's sixteen years old; she knows the difference between right and wrong; why doesn't she adhere to her conscience?" But the laws of middle class society have little influence on her. Both parents are alcoholic, and there has been a free display of vulgarity and indecent behavior before her from the time she was old enough to notice. I need not expand her case except to say that she is one of hundreds of thousands, and we cannot say to her, as some teachers have in the past, "Now, dear, *nice* girls don't act that way." We cannot assume, as too many teachers do, that our students' moral codes are the same as their teachers'. We cannot expect to help them by our standards. We do not have enough learning and insight about their moral problems.

We have little learning about the motivation techniques for these students. How do we persuade them to stay in school? For many of them *work* is only a word; they have no other concept of it. Not long ago I saw first graders who felt no need to learn colors. No one had said, "Wear the red or the pink dress today." It was get on whatever dress was there, and you could not tell the color, perhaps for the filth, more likely for the lack of others to contrast. No one had shopped for drapes to match the carpet and talked of this experience. Why bother to learn colors? They had no meaning for these children.

The deprived child is unprepared to deal skillfully with the idea of time. The middle class American notion of the value of scheduling and planning time is comparatively absent in the slums. Often a teacher interprets a child's disregard for time as a form of rebellion or stupidity instead of a cultural difference.

Teachers complain of these students' brief attention span, their short periods of concentration. But, according to the article, "Not Like Other Children," in *Redbook,*

> Psychologists are beginning to discern that the slum child's inattention may be a high skill, the result of intensive training. When a child lives with eleven people in three rooms separated by thin walls from other households of eleven people in three other rooms, smelling their cooking, sharing their toilets, knowing when the man is drunk next door and the baby is awake downstairs, a child must *learn* to be inattentive to survive. His eyes become skilled at not seeing, his ears at not hearing.[1]

Yet, we expect him to become aware and attentive the moment he enters our classroom door.

The deprived child is different because of a poverty of experience. Our laws do not bind him, our standard middle class ambitions do not inspire him, IQ's do not measure him, and his teachers are not reaching him.

In one of Saroyan's stories a boy goes to the library for the first time and says, "All them books, and something written in each one!" The teacher looks

[1] Bernard Asbell, *Redbook,* October, 1963.

at his class and says, "All them students and something written in each one!" Recently, I have been associated with two exciting projects that are designed to help teachers read more intelligently that which is written in the disadvantaged student. The first is the Pre-College Program of Educational Services Inc. (ESI), which is directed by Dr. Herman Branson, Howard University, and Dr. J. R. Zacharias, Massachusetts Institute of Technology. This program received its initial impetus from a group of educators who were concerned with the depressingly high dropout rate among students in predominantly Negro colleges. This figure reaches 60 percent. There are six centers on southern Negro college campuses, with 200 students at each center. Students attend Saturday morning sessions during their twelfth grade and for eight weeks during the summer following high school graduation.

The other project is an English Institute for Teachers of the Disadvantaged held at Princeton University in the summer. It is unique because 200 students, grades 9-11, attend classes taught by master teachers. The teachers attending the institute observe these classes in the mornings and attend a schedule similar to those of NDEA institutes in the afternoon. This summer the program has been expanded to include 400 students and 80 teachers.

What have we found that may be an aid in teaching the disadvantaged? What have the students taught us about themselves?

1. Adolescents with poor reading skills are frequently more intelligent than our schools assume. There are many other projects that support this finding. They demand reading materials that relate to their experiences, their interests, and their intelligence. Many of them fail in school because there is no relationship between the classroom and what happens when the dismissal bell rings. Because the books we give them seem stupid, the students' negative response to them appears stupid. They deliberately reject the world of books and reading, not because these students are dumb, but because they are bored. Sanity suggests that the street child learn that which prepares him to live in the world which is immediate, which is real. Too often he receives negative education in school—education in fear, frustration, futility, and failure. We should remember that the dropout is as true an alumnus as any other, and he returns to test the school's conscience.

2. Students growing up in crowded city conditions have strengths as well as deficiencies. For example, from their rich oral culture, they gain a great virtuosity with the music, the poetry of words. They may fail to use the past tense or make their subjects and verbs agree, but their flair for language and their word play would make a poet green with envy.

Yet, language may be a strange and hostile enemy. When they first come to school, they may find an environment cluttered with objects and processes for which they have no words and from which poverty, custom, and race too often bar them. Alfred Kazin recalls:

> When I passed the school, I went sick with all my old fear of it. I never associated learning with that school. Our teachers seemed to agree that we were somehow to be a little ashamed of what we were, not because we were Jews, or simply because

> we spoke another language at home. It was rather that a "refined," "correct," "nice" English was required of us at school that we did not naturally speak, and that our teachers could never be quite sure we would keep. It was bright and cleaned and polished. We were expected to show it off like a pair of new shoes. When the teacher sharply called out a question, you were expected to eject those new words fluently off the tongue.
>
> That was my secret ordeal. The word was my agony. The word that for others was so effortless and so natural, so simple, so exact, I had first to meditate in advance, to see if I could make it, like a plumber fitting together odd lengths and shapes of pipe. I was always preparing words I could speak, storing them away, choosing between them. And often, when the word did come from my mouth in its great and terrible birth, quailing and bleeding as if forced through a thornbush, I would not be able to look the others in the face, and would walk out in the silence to say it all cleanly back to myself as I walked the streets. . . . It troubled me that I could speak in the fullness of my own voice only when I was alone in the streets, walking about. There was something unbearably isolated about it. I was not like the others! I was not like the others! The teachers did not understand me.[2]

3. One strength to be developed in these students is their acute understanding of what makes people "tick." This offers a potential for excelling in understanding literature. Therefore, it is important that they be asked to write about characterization, motivation, and even symbolism in literature rather than writing about "Who Am I?" or "My Summer Vacation."

4. For these students, the traditional literature anthologies were traded for paperbacks. The massive hardbacked books threaten the reluctant reader. When they are impressively stamped as the property of the school, there is no personal invitation to mark a favorite passage or to scribble a hasty note. Paperbacks are important, if only because they can be finished. Although one might want to return to them later, or start to collect them, the student nevertheless can go on to another, wholly different book, with a different cover, color, number of pages, title, size, etc., and he can tackle it as a wholly new undertaking.

5. We avoided grammar drills, study hints, remedial reading, and other deadly items in the traditional English teacher's inventory. We were not saying that skills are unimportant; without question they are. But to concentrate on them is to isolate the student further. Why should we think these techniques would work this time when they had failed in the past?

What methods have we found that reach these students? In our teacher training sessions for those who teach in the centers, we emphasize the inductive method. The teacher presents the material; provides, if necessary, a provocative starting question; and creates the kind of atmosphere which encourages the students to do their own asking, probing, and solving. The successful operation of a class often depends vitally on asking the right questions at the right time and in the right way. When a question is asked of the class at large, it is usually a bad idea to first direct the question to a particular student. The result is that most other students dismiss the question without thinking about it. The teacher need not be the filter for all knowledge in the classroom. Too often the pattern runs like this: teacher asks one student a question; student gives him

[2]Alfred Kazin, *A Walker in the City* (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1951), p. 17.

the answer; teacher asks another student a question; student answers. Students do not listen to each other. We have conditioned them to think that they have nothing to learn from each other. In our training sessions, we encourage our teachers to listen to their own questions. We asked,

> Do you ask too many "yes" or "no" questions or too many that may be answered in one word?
> Do you limit the student's answer by the way you phrase the question? Do you indicate the answer?
> Do you give the student time to struggle, to gasp, to find the answer? Or do you supply the answer for him so you may move on?
> When he does answer, do you reword and rephrase the answer so that it is no longer his, but yours?

The deprived child may give what we term a "wrong" answer, and we penalize him. We fail to reward his thinking process. Based on his experience and his background, his thinking process may have been commendable, and he gave the only answer he could. By asking more questions, rephrasing, redirecting, asking another student, or going to something the class does know, we can help him search for an acceptable answer and at the same time preserve his dignity. It is frightening to consider how we teachers damage the child's self image by the way we handle questions and answers in the classroom. We must remember that the student's answer is not the only byproduct of our question. His insight, his development of concepts, and his interest in the subject matter may depend on the way we juggle creative questions.

The creative teacher does not steal the fun of learning from his students by lecturing all the time, by telling all the answers. He does not kill the subject by his own eagerness (Or should we say "egoness"?) to show himself to be its master. He does not put knowledge into neat boxes, tie them securely, and leave them on the shelf for the student to take down and put up at the end of the period each day. Through skillful manipulation of questions and discussion, he stimulates doubts, disagreements, insight; and, when the class ends, these flow into the hallway with the students to plague their curiosity through the day. The mind of the student is a changing, ever fascinating thing. Each time we meet it, we have the opportunity to turn the experience into something that is alive, vital, and worthwhile; or we can allow the experience to become something that is dead, boring, and filled with lethargy.

Challenge is a weak word when we place it beside the responsibility we face in teaching these students. We are sometimes provoked to ask, "Isn't it impossible? Isn't this the most deplorable age in the history of man to be a teacher?" My reply is, "It is the most glorious!" When have the stakes been higher? We are all painfully aware that one can assassinate a man. But without effective education for *every* child, how can we prevent the assassination of our own civilization? The times demand that education forge a new teacher. Unless we first prepare ourselves, we will fail. How can we shape teachers who will see these students with the wisdom and the experience of the adult world, but with the understanding of the student's world? How can we encourage the child to think creatively about himself if we do not think about him creatively? How

can we prepare teachers who can build imaginative materials if we do not know what speaks to these students?

We must demand changes in our own college methods courses and our inservice training programs. We must ask that department chairmen be as dedicated to hiring secondary specialists in the English department as they are to finding Shakespeare or Milton specialists. We must continue to search boldly and diligently to find a way to reach each child. We must produce teachers who will make this vow: "I will look into the face of each child that I teach and measure my worth as a teacher by what I can give that child."

A French philosopher once said, "The young bird feels no pain when you clip his wings, but he cannot fly." So it is with these young ones. If we fail to motivate them, to teach them, to understand them, they will not feel any pain when we clip their wings, but they will never fly.

Dialect Study and English Education

RAVEN I. MCDAVID, JR., *University of Chicago*

One who has been involved in a major research project, like the Linguistic Atlas of the United States and Canada, must necessarily be more concerned with the project for its own sake than with any implications, however so practical. For one thing, the design and execution of any research project must be such that it achieves what it sets out to do, regardless of any practical aims, however laudable; too much immediate preoccupation with practical aims is likely to distort the investigation. Besides, as our brethren in atomic physics have dramatically demonstrated in the past generation, one never knows what is practical and what is not; the most significant practical results are achieved by getting a rigorously designed investigation pushed through to its conclusions, so that the implications can be followed up by others. Moreover, it has been pointed out—for linguistics—that perhaps five levels of work and five different types of personality are needed in the process of getting the findings of the discipline into the hands of intelligent laymen and of the students in our schools.

1. First, we need the general linguistic theorist, who works speculatively on a high level, concerned with the relationships of linguistics to other disciplines and of language to other manifestations of human behavior. To mention only a few—and without any disparagement of those who are not here mentioned—one can think of Sapir and Jespersen and Bloomfield, or Pike and Chomsky, or Trager and Halliday and Lamb.

2. The next level of operation involves the description of particular languages, or dialects, or pairs of languages and dialects; here the general theoretical framework may or may not be mentioned. It does not appear in Fries's two works, *American English Grammar*[1] and *The Structure of English*,[2] though what Fries says is related to the previous work of Jespersen. On the other hand, Hill's *Introduction to Linguistic Structures*[3] is confessedly based on the Trager-Smith *Outline of English Structure*[4]—so much so that irreverent observers subtitle it *Archbishop Hill's Exegesis of the Gospel According to St. George;* or a *Hill of a Way to Tragerize English.* And no observer is so obtuse as to miss

---

[1] Sponsored by the National Council of Teachers of English. (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1940).

[2] (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1952).

[3] (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1958).

[4] (New York: American Council of Learned Societies [Columbia University Press], 1951).

the voice of the Master of the Lower Charles in the work of his beloved disciple Robert Lees, *A Grammar of Nominalizations in English.*[5]

3. The third level is that of popularization, whether for a lay audience or for classroom use. Here the responsibility of the writer is to take the knowledge of the language analyst, with an understanding of the underlying theoretical position, and order it in such a way as to achieve fuller and more immediate comprehension. Here the writer must remember not to underestimate the intelligence of the audience, but not to overestimate their information; he must remember that the order that is good at an advanced level, or as a scientific description, may not necessarily work in a public description or for the elementary student. And with the number of students in the millions, he may discover that many different kinds of pedagogical interpretations are needed to fit all the possible audiences.

At this level of performance, one thinks particularly of the work of Paul Roberts, at various stations along his pilgrim's progress, or of the reading series edited by Rosemary Wilson, by Don Rasmussen and Lynn Goldberg, and by Ralph Robinett and his Miami associates. With Roberts the underlying theoretical position and the derivative analysis are stated fairly overtly; with the reading series—designed for a much younger audience—they never appear in the classroom materials, but may be discussed in the teachers' manuals.

Here a caution is necessary. In my Satanic peregrinations up and down the United States, even at conventions such as this, I am often asked to talk about "the linguistic method" in the English classroom. Let me be emphatic here that there is no linguistic method of teaching; there are various pedagogical methods—most of them very old—which may utilize the data which linguists have assembled and ordered. It does linguistics no service that various publishers, which should be nameless, emphasize the "linguistic method" of their books—even if the only linguistic content is a brief supplement in Tragerian or Friesian terms, tacked on to a textbook which employs an entirely different grammatical analysis; it only confuses the teacher and disgusts the serious linguist.

4. The next level consists of the training of teachers in the new content and in methods of adapting it to the classroom situation. At this level we are still very weak; we are not turning out enough teachers, or trainers of teachers, or even those who can train the trainers of teachers. For this gap, paradoxically, the rapid expansion of linguistics itself is in part responsible. Until World War II there were few departments of linguistics, and those mostly on paper; a would-be linguist worked in one of the orthodox academic departments—English, Germanics, Romance, classics, anthropology—and took necessary courses outside, according to his special interests. Now, however, departments of linguistics are numerous; their students seldom develop an acquaintance with the literary and cultural offerings that the older departments provide. Graduates from such departments have such a variety of opportunities—government employment, machine translation, English teaching overseas—that even if English

[5](Bloomington: Indiana University Press; 4th prtg., The Hague: Mouton & Company, 1966).

is their chief language, they are less and less likely to be candidates for posts in English departments; and the belletristic bias of most English departments (not excluding my own) makes it difficult to develop new graduate programs in the English language to make up for the deficiency. The shortage of people at the levels between the investigator of particular languages and the classroom teacher is such that the language committee of the recent conference at Lincoln took particular note and urged that the training of people for this level be given the highest priority.

5. The final level, and the one where the knowledge pays off, is that of the classroom. Although the general classroom teacher has better opportunities than a generation ago to become informed, there is still too little information available for his needs, and the supply of effective linguists in teacher training programs has barely kept pace with the growing demand for teachers.

If this is a true picture of general linguistics in relation to the needs of American education, the picture is even less satisfying where dialectology is concerned. Again, there is an adequate body of theoretical scholars. However, those who have done—or should be doing—serious investigations of the dialects of American English are relatively few, and until very recently their numbers have not increased appreciably. This slow growth can be explained partly by the lack of funds for investigation and editing, partly by the peculiar qualifications needed to be a good investigator in the field—not only sound general training in linguistics and a facility for rapid phonetic transcription in the field, but an ability to get along with all kinds of informants, to elicit natural responses, and to endure living conditions not always up to the standards of Duncan Hines. The lack of funds for publication of the major collections has meant that a relatively few students have been able to work from primary sources. Consequently, there are few good pedagogically oriented statements suitable for the elementary or high school teacher. Such interpretative works as Kurath's *Word Geography*,[6] Kurath's and my *Pronunciation of English in the Atlantic States*,[7] Atwood's *Survey of Verb Forms in the Eastern United States*[8] and *The Regional Vocabulary of Texas*[9] are relatively unknown to the classroom teacher; in fact, they have not even been used by the two most widely advertised programs for facing the dialect differences in northern urban school systems and southern Negro colleges. Teacher training programs have little to say about the cause and nature of dialect differences, and particularly of those that exist in the United States; and classroom teachers—even in cosmopolitan communities—are still unwilling to recognize that some other variety of English may be not only as legitimate but as excellent as their own. Except for the Bloomington conference on social dialects, whose proceedings were published last year by the NCTE,[10] teachers are largely dependent on the summary in Chapter 9 of

[6] *A Word Geography of the Eastern United States* (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1949).

[7] (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1961).

[8] (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1953).

[9] (Austin: University of Texas Press, 1962).

[10] Roger W. Shuy (ed.), *Social Dialects and Language Learning* (Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1965).

Nelson Francis, *The Structure of American English*,[11] written nearly a decade ago.

It would perhaps not seem necessary to mention the gaps in our knowledge if we were living in a time of Coolidge complacency, when it was assumed that we would always have and always need a large number of unskilled laborers, when even illiteracy was no necessary bar to successful living at tolerable wages, when high schools enrolled a small proportion of the elementary school population, so that the few who entered high school from uneducated families could be assimilated to the mores of the middle class, including their patterns of speech. But with the raising of the age of compulsory school attendance, the efflorescence of the dogma of social promotion, and the inundation of the schools by the underprivileged—including, in northern cities, the unhappy fruits of the southern pattern of separate and unequal educational facilities—the existence of sharply divergent dialects in the same school system and even in the same classroom has become a commonplace, and as a part of our efforts to compensate for economic and social disadvantages the schools have become concerned over the social liability of substandard linguistic forms. This has always been a part of the function of the schools—teaching a command of an idiom, a variety of language, other than what one learns naturally, whether this is a completely different language (as when Latin was the medium of learning during the Middle Ages) or a prestigious variety of the vernacular, as in every Western country from the late Middle Ages to the present. The problem has always been to define the variety of the language to be taught in the schools, to develop materials for teaching that variety effectively, and to provide a set of sanctions by which the students would learn the situations in which varieties of the language might and should be used.

It is therefore apparent that the effective use of dialect evidence in the American classroom demands work on nearly every level. But it is likewise apparent that we can still make a number of statements about the ways in which these materials can be used. And in comparison with the state of affairs a generation ago, we are very well off.

First, we have collected, for the Linguistic Atlas, systematic evidence—in field interviews, by trained investigators, with identifiable informants—from a large part of the United States, including the entire area of original settlement, the Great Lakes Basin and Ohio Valley, the Upper Midwest, California, Nevada, and Colorado. Outside these regions we have a number of other bodies of data—local, incomplete, or conducted by less skilled persons—such as student interviews covering all of Louisiana, a vocabulary study of Texas and environs, and investigations of the bilingual situation in San Antonio and of class differences in the speech of Memphis Negroes.

Second, we have a number of intensive local studies, some of them based on the Linguistic Atlas materials, others independent. These include such major communities as New York, San Francisco, Cincinnati, Louisville, Akron, the Port Arthur-Orange-Beaumont complex in Texas, and such minor centers as

[11] (New York: Ronald Press, 1958).

Terre Haute, Indiana. Others are under way or projected. In several communities we have follow-up investigations, to see what changes have taken place since the first Linguistic Atlas records were made in the early 1930's. The most significant new investigations are perhaps those in New England, directed by Audrey Duckert. All of these new investigations take more account than did the earlier Atlas field work of the impact of new in-migrants and minority groups; particularly important will be a proposed dissertation on the differences between Negro and white speech in some thirty southern communities where there are paired informants of comparable economic, educational, and social status.

Third, we are beginning to have a number of studies of reactions to dialect differences, and to the directions of dialect differences, and to the directions of dialect shift in an individual under various types of speech situations. Here I would include the dissertation of William Labov, of Columbia University, whose findings have been presented to many gatherings of linguists and anthropologists but not yet made accessible to the general public. Almost as interesting, though with a less sophisticated design, is the dissertation of Rufus Baehr, at Chicago. An illuminating study of the folklore of racial speech characteristics is likely to come out of the Chicago social dialects project.

Fourth, the publications dealing with dialect differences and their implications are increasing. Although the *Lingustic Atlas of New England* is out of print, a reprint is envisaged about 1968, in connection with the appearance of the first volume of the *Linguistic Atlas of the Middle and South Atlantic States.* The other regional atlases–North-Central, Upper Midwest, and California-Nevada being the ones where field work is complete or at least fairly well along –are also progressing toward publication. Labov's dissertation will appear in print this spring; it should soon be followed by Lee Pederson's study of dialect differences within the Chicago metropolitan area. Roger Shuy is developing a new monograph of dialect differences, designed for high school use and incorporating the latest available data. And a manual for teachers, dealing with the problems of social dialects, is in prospect–whenever the proposal clears the glacial processes of the U. S. Office of Education.

Fifth, we are finally beginning to develop a new generation of dialect scholars who are capable of initiating and directing new research projects, of training teachers, and developing students who in their turn will be able to train teachers.

Finally, through the combined resources of the Center for Applied Linguistics and the NCTE, we have a clearing house for information on both research projects and teaching programs dealing with dialect differences in American English.

Let us now see what some of the implications our new knowledge of dialect differences may have for teaching programs.

First of all, dialect differences, whether regional or social, reflect complex patterns of population origins, routes of migrations and communication, economic organization, educational systems, social structure, and historical developments. In a world where we hope that ethnocentrism is on the decline, it might be

well to start our understanding of cultural differences with other Americans. Since language is probably the most habitual form of human behavior, we can call attention to the diversity of speech patterns existing within our own nation as one more indication of our cultural vitality. Investigations of this kind, guided by the suggestions in the Linguistic Atlas handbooks and in derivative studies, can be conducted at a very early age, in almost any situation. This is a kind of research that requires little equipment: it may be just as fruitful in stimulating controlled curiosity as the more elaborate experiments using scientific hardware; its payoff will be more immediate, since even fairly young students can observe that some people talk differently than others. I remember that one of my boys at the ripe age of four asked quite seriously, "Daddy, why is it that you say [ɔon] when Mamma says [aˑn]?" A skillful teacher can turn the sometimes embarrassingly different speech of a newcomer into a class asset. Furthermore, our evidence from the dialect investigations can enable us to point out the basic difference of the American situation from that of most of the nations of Western Europe: although upper class London English, Parisian French, Moscow Russian, Castilian Spanish, Florentine Italian, and a derivative upper class South German have an overwhelming cultural prestige as opposed to all other regional varieties in their respective countries, in the United States —as we have plenty of evidence—the most eloquent expression of the national conscience can be presented in the accents of the Hudson Valley, central Illinois, Boston, southwest Texas, or Mississippi.

The dialectologist can also show the classroom teacher that not only do we have variety, but we have constant change. It is apparent that cultivated southern speech is already somewhat different from what it was three decades ago: the [əi] and [əu] diphthongs are less common than they used to be in Virginian and Charlestonian *night* and *out*. A larger proportion of educated southerners use and accept the monophthongal pronunciation of [ai], not only in *ride* and *die*, where it has always been widespread, but in what was our childhood shibboleth, *nice white rice*. On the other hand, the homonymy of *tired* and *tarred* is still as much of a social stigma as ever.

The dialectologist can also point out that change in dialect patterns results from human interactions. Radio and television—despite their great public exposure—have little effect, because the audience is passive; the continuous exposure to the television among the children of the urban disadvantaged has had no demonstrable influence on their language facility, their pronunciation, or even on their grammar. This evidence would suggest that any school program attempting to alter the speech patterns of children in the direction of a variety of standard English should concentrate on those features of the language that are most readily correlated with social status and try to make the standard forms habitual at least in the formal situation.

It is apparent that vocabulary changes in response to social experience; the rural Illinois child will learn as a matter of course the differences between *pigs, shoats, hogs, sows, gilts, boars, barrows, stags,* and *rigs;* the urban child will as easily learn the differences in kinds of apartment buildings. It was a shock to me to hear my wife apply the name *boulevard* to the grass strip

between the sidewalk and the street; I had no native name for it; since then I have heard it called *parking, tree lawn, devil strip,* and *tree belt.* New words, for new things or old, are easily picked up.

Grammatical differences most often reflect education. There are a few regional differences in the grammar of standard English—*dove* [dov] as the past tense of *dive* is a good example—but not too many of these, and most of them appear in the informal and oral rather than in the formal and written uses of language. In the past, the schools have been rather successful in imparting the standard grammatical practices to those who did not have them in their home dialect, probably because the problem affected only a minority in most classrooms. Today, however, the grammatical practices of certain minority groups will identify them, in certain situations, not only in speech but in writing. To be specific, in Chicago it is possible to identify the race of a high school graduate at least nine times out of ten by the grammatical forms in a theme. This would suggest that the inculcating of standard grammatical forms must henceforth be accomplished by some other means than those employed in the middle class oriented textbooks which still prevail in our schools—textbooks which emphasize the marking and "correcting" of discrete "errors" rather than the habitual production of standard forms. This perhaps also suggests an encouragement of oral participation from the beginning of the school experience, with a more imaginative use of seatwork and outside written assignments.

Pronunciation is the most habitual part of language, changing rarely after age ten and then only in response to intensive interactions. Here the dialectologist can be of most service to the classroom teacher—in sorting out the features that are most associated with nonstandard speech everywhere, and ignoring those which have some standing in some varieties of cultivated English. After all, the task of the English teacher, at whatever level, is difficult enough when he attempts to modify a limited number of habitual language practices.

The places in the curriculum where a knowledge of dialects might be valuable to the teacher will depend on the kinds of classroom situation. But assuming that the monolithic Caucasoid village society no longer exists, if it ever did, we can see several specific applications of this knowledge. Let us begin with regional dialect differences, assuming the students have some variety of standard English in their homes.

First of all, as my pronunciation of *on* indicates, there are different sets of phonemic-graphemic associations. In the Pittsburgh area, *cot* and *caught* are homonyms; in many urban areas speakers do not consistently distinguish the *wails* from a baby's crib from the *whales* in the sea; in some sections they do not distinguish the *airs* of a conceited woman from the *ears* she has had pierced. The ordering of both reading and spelling materials might take these differences into account; I have at least advised this on the two or three occasions when publishers have picked my brains.

In speech and composition, there is a need to sort out the regional difference from the social—and also a need to know the forms that will not give difficulty. None of my classmates in South Carolina needed to be discouraged from saying *hadn't ought* or *sick to the stomach,* though some of them adopted

these forms after finding them mentioned in their textbook exercises. I have since learned that both are a part of standard Northern, though the former would not appear in formal written English. It is also likely—though we don't yet have the evidence—that regional differences in stress patterns make certain syntactic structures in Kentucky themes ambiguous to upstate New Yorkers.

In literature, we need to realize that an author's style is not generated by a computer, but is usually derivative from the kinds of English he hears about him. This one will concede about special kinds of dialects, either ethnic varieties like that in the Uncle Remus stories or the pseudo-sophistication of Holden Caulfield. But it operates on a higher level as well; Mississippi English influences Faulkner not only in phonetic spellings and folk grammar of his uneducated characters, or in words or regional provenance or with clear regional meanings; it is also apparent in the rhythm of the narration.

It is in the matter of social dialects, however, that there is properly the greatest interest at the time. It is unfortunately directed almost intensively at the speech of the disadvantaged Negroes in our northern slums—I say "unfortunately" not because their problems are not acute, or their numbers large, but because this focus is likely to become a racist one, with certain features singled out and emphasized as features of "Negro speech" although the specific details may be found clustering in the same way in many varieties of white Anglo-Saxon Protestant Gentile English, and though the same kinds of problems are associated with every situation where children learn in the home some kind of language other than standard English.

One part of the language problem of these groups—fluency and facility—is outside the province of dialectology as such, except insofar as an unreasonable emphasis on "correctness" and an unrealistic standard of the target dialect may simply inhibit the students. Related to this is what might be called the lower class mumble, especially but not exclusively associated with Negroes and southern poor whites. Essentially a protective device, to prevent their remarks from being used against them by the representatives of the dominant culture, it can probably be combated most effectively by developing some confidence in one's dignity as a human being, with a chance to participate more fully in our society. Here the dialectologist has no special expertise beyond that of any sensitive and dedicated teacher.

The grammatical problems, we have noted, are the crucial ones in our society for setting off uneducated speech and writing from educated. Here the systematic features are particularly important—those which recur again and again. Among these we have the regular plural inflections of nouns, the third singular present indicative of verbs—*makes, gives, pushes*—the regular past tense and past participles, the *-ing* ending of the present participle, the proper number and person forms of the verb *to be*. In syntax we have proper use of auxiliaries —*be* with adjectives and participles, *have* with the past participle. Although the details of deviation from the standard pattern vary from one minority group to another, many of them are shared by such diverse groups as uneducated Negroes, Appalachian whites and Louisiana Cajans, to mention only a few of the disadvantaged; others by various urban ethnic groups of European origin.

It is with pronunciation that one finds sharp differences between the problems of particular groups. The Spanish-American seems to be unique in supplying an extra vowel before English words beginning in the consonant clusters [sp-, st-, sk-]; the Japanese and Chinese in confusing [r] and [l]; the French in ignoring phonemic stress. All speakers of other languages have difficulties in acquiring the command of the large number of vowel and diphthong distinctions that English employs; anyone who speaks a native-based variety of English, whether Gullah or Greenpoint, is used to making far more distinctions than appear in Spanish, Italian or Japanese. But nonstandard speakers of English share with speakers of other languages incomplete control of the significant differences between [t], [θ], and [f] and between [d], [ð], and [v], and many of them share the foreign language speaker's difficulty with the complicated final consonant clusters with which English abounds. Other systematic features are shared by certain groups of speakers of nonstandard English, as the omission of unstressed initial syllables, giving *'fessor* for *professor* and *porter* for *reporter*, or a heavy stress on final syllables where standard English has weak stress, as in *presidènt, elemènt*. Others may be discovered as we gather more evidence in the field, particularly as we learn more about the varieties of Negro speech. But if we think in terms of a positive approach to the command of standard English patterns, rather than in terms of detecting and correcting as discrete items each deviation from the patterns, we already have enough evidence on which to base a rich and effective program.

You will note that I have omitted discrete items in grammar and pronunciation, such as *holp* [hop] as the past tense or participle of *help*, or the pronunciation of *deaf* as [dif]. These will have to be learned more or less as items, for *whelp* and *yelp* seem to be regular in even nonstandard American English, and *leaf* everywhere has the [i] vowel. But it is the pattern that makes the major difference between standard and nonstandard English.

The problem arises as to what the target dialect should be. For this I would suggest that the program should present consistently a variety of standard English current in the particular community, but that the students should not be forced to give up speech forms that are standard in wide areas, however much they might differ from local norms; if they wish to shift of themselves in these matters, they can do so—a great deal of language modification goes on informally and even unconsciously, so that after a decade in the Inland North I was told by my sister in Gaffney, South Carolina, that I speak just like a Yankee. One might even think of the possibility of standard Alabama as the target dialect in the public schools of Chicago or Detroit, where it would be at least a more nearly realizable target for the majority of public school students. But in any event, there are so many socially significant differences that one can afford to omit such frills as the distinction between *wails* and *whales*.

A second problem concerns the use to be made of the school dialect. I am personally in favor of recognizing functional bidialectalism, since the ability to use naturally the grammar of the mountaineer and the mill hand has been a pronounced social asset in my field work. But it is only rarely that one who comes by standard English naturally will find it to his advantage to learn a non-

standard dialect. One should emphasize, again, the positive advantages of the standard variety but should not worry if there is code switching in informal situations where the home dialect is more comfortable. I should certainly resent the notion that a middle western variety of English should be taught in programs designed for southern Negroes. The encouragement of New England pronunciations in the schools set up during Reconstruction has created the impression among intelligent and not unsympathetic southern whites that education made the Negro "uppity." It would be tragic to reduce the chances of achieving integration in the South by bringing the Negro into the southern classroom with a school dialect remarkably different from that of his white classmates. As it is, the same range of differences in pronunciation and in grammar may be found among both southern Negroes and southern whites; a teaching program emphasizing a variety of standard English in harmony with the patterns of the local community will be easier to operate and will accomplish more in the long run.

I have heard observers comment that it is impossible to get people to accept a multivalent standard for American English. This is a pessimism I will not accept; and being without an accent myself, I see no reason why I or my children should be bludgeoned into what may be for us an unnatural pattern of speech—nor why any other person, anywhere, should be so bludgeoned if he has achieved command of some variety that is standard, whether it is Charleston or Keokuk. In fact, along with any program in language teaching to those who do not speak and write standard English should go a program for emphasizing that all dialects are natural and legitimate, that standard American English may vary from place to place, and that no difference—standard or nonstandard—is due to mental or moral inferiority, but only to differences in experience.

The Job Corps Reading Program

WILLIAM A. LAPLANTE, *Program Development and Evaluation Division, Job Corps*

The Job Corps was established under provisions of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964. Under this act a residential training program for youth was initiated with the goal of helping unemployed youth 16 through 21 obtain and keep a job, go back to school, or join the armed forces.

After initial screening in their town by Employment Service Interviewers, enrollees may be assigned to one of three types of residential Centers:

1. Conservation Centers—located on public lands and operated by the Agriculture Department's Forest Service and various bureaus of the Interior Department. These Centers have an enrollment range of from 100 to 200 Corpsmen. Half of the Corpsmen's time at Conservation Centers is devoted to work on public resource conservation projects and half of their time is spent learning job skills and basic academic subjects. In Conservation Centers the basic education and vocational training programs are planned and evaluated directly by the Office of Economic Opportunity's Job Corps' headquarters staff.
2. Men's Urban Centers—located on unused military bases and other facilities near urban areas. These Centers are established and operated under contracts with businesses, educational and social service agencies, and universities. They have enrollments ranging from 1,000 to 3,000.
3. Women's Centers—located in or near urban areas and operated under contract with organizations similar to that of the men's Urban Centers. In addition to basic education, vocational training, and work experience, programs in these Centers include training in family responsibility and fundamentals of good grooming and good health. They accommodate an average of 250 to 350 enrollees.

The organizations responsible for the operation of men's and women's Centers are also responsible for the development of educational programs and the recruitment and employment of center staffs. The rationale for having Urban Centers develop individual educational programs as opposed to the basic prescribed program in all the Conservation Centers was the obvious one of encouraging experimentation and development of innovative educational technique that, if proven successful, could be shared by the various Urban and Conservation Centers.

Job Corps Enrollees

From data drawn from the first 20,000 young men and women who entered Job Corps the following profile was developed:

> The average Job Corps enrollee is 17½ years old, unmarried, unemployed, and looking for a job. He has gone to school through the ninth grade, but he can read only at the sixth grade level and can do arithmetic at the fifth grade level. He has been out of school nearly a year. He comes from a family of six which lives in overcrowded, substandard housing.

A further analysis of their education shows that 69 percent have not gone beyond the ninth grade. Only 18 percent completed the tenth grade, and only 6.9 percent of all Job Corps enrollees have completed high school. Nearly 60 percent of the Job Corps enrollees read below the sixth grade level, and about 20 percent read below the third grade level. With regard to work experience, 26 percent of the young people in Job Corps have never held a job of any kind. Of those who worked previously, nearly 75 percent held unskilled jobs as laborers, dishwashers, peddlers, ushers, bus boys, dairy workers, etc. Nearly half (48 percent) earned less than $1.00 an hour, with the average $.43 an hour. Only 14 percent earned as much as $1.25 to $1.50 an hour. More than 10 percent earned $.50 an hour or less in the last job they held before entering the Job Corps.

Selection of Materials

About a year and a half ago, prior to the actual opening of any Centers, task forces were set up to develop the various educational programs that would be necessary for the successful implementation of the Job Corps concept. One of these, under the direction of Dr. Douglas Porter of the Harvard Graduate School of Education, specifically concerned itself with the development of a reading program.

For the rather obvious reason of time pressure, it was decided that it would not be feasible to develop completely new materials for Job Corps. The solution adopted was to carefully examine existing materials, and, modifying where necessary, use these "off-the-shelf" materials for the basic program. Criteria were developed so that materials could be examined according to a rational scheme. For the Beginning Reading Program, materials were examined according to the following:

1. *Use data* (when it was available)—Such data were carefully scrutinized, since misinterpretation was quite possible.
2. *Teachability*—The degree of special skills required by the instructor to assure proper implementation of the program. A program was considered more desirable if less dependent upon teacher competence.
3. *Control*—The extent to which a program's effectiveness might be affected by poor teaching and other variables of field use.
4. *Entry Level*—The level of skills necessary to enter the program. Programs with minimal skills required for entry were considered more desirable.
5. *Flexible Entry*—To what degree the program allowed learners to enter at various levels; *i.e.*, if a Corpsman possessed some reading skills, would it be

necessary for him to enter the program at the beginning, or were provisions made for entry at a point that recognized previous learnings or skills?

6. *Terminal Level*–The skill level that completion of the program would bring to the learner.
7. *Interest Factors*–The degree to which the program would maintain the interest of the learner.
8. *Programing*–To what degree the program developed a sequence of tasks that built upon each other.
9. *Linguistic Analysis*–The extent that the program was based upon an analysis of the structure of English language. Were the tasks presented in a planned sequential order?

From programs available at that time, it was decided to use the Sullivan Associates' "Programmed Reading." It met the established criteria better than other available material. However, two other programs were deemed to be of sufficient merit to warrant field tests of them as alternatives for the Sullivan Program. The field testing of these two programs in the Job Corps context is presently underway.

For the major part of the reading curriculum, the Intermediate Program, no single existing program was judged adequate, so a mixture of available materials was welded together to serve as a system for providing instruction in the skill range of about third to seventh grade. For the Advanced Reading Program, commercially available material was considered adequate. These materials would develop Corpsmen's skills from about seventh grade levels to advanced high school reading skills. It was felt that a Corpsman who reached this level of reading development would best profit by a flexible mixture of reading instruction that included, besides a structured reading program, library and vocational materials. Therefore the formal reading program at this level is minimal as compared to the beginning and intermediate levels.

The Job Corps Reading Program

Since each of the Men's and Women's Urban Centers has developed its own reading program, this paper will concern itself only with the reading program used in the Job Corps Conservation Centers. The minimal terminal goal of the Job Corps Reading Program is to develop the reading skills of Corpsmen to the seventh grade level as measured by standardized tests. This goal was selected since at this level a Corpsman would be able to read the average newspaper or magazine and be able to participate efficiently in appropriate vocational training.

For organizational purposes the program is divided into three major segments: a beginning reading program, an intermediate reading program, and an advanced reading program. The Beginning Reading Program, a series of programed texts, is designed for those trainees who have reading skills ranging from complete illiteracy up to roughly fourth grade. About 40 percent of the Corpsmen fall into this category upon their arrival at Conservation Centers. The Intermediate Reading Program, a collection of nearly 2,000 separate reading exercises grouped by topic and level of difficulty, provides instruction in the

skill range of about third to seventh grade. The Advanced Reading Program, consisting of a "Reading Laboratory" and vocational and library materials, is designed to develop Corpsmen's reading skills from seventh grade to advanced high school levels.

Program Materials

The Beginning Reading Program consists of eleven programed textbooks, a "pre-reading program," a primer, a series of placement tests, and a series of book or unit tests. The Intermediate Program consists of nearly 2,000 carefully graded reading selections with short comprehension tests following each selection. The selections are taken from the following commercial publications: SRA Reading Laboratories and Pilot Libraries, Reader's Digest Skill Builder texts, EDL Controlled Reading Stories, and Merrills' Modern Reading Books.

Since publisher identification of reading levels was found to be inconsistent, all materials in the Intermediate Program were scaled and assigned reading levels by means of the Ross and Powers restandardization of the Farr-Jenkins-Patterson readability formula. Grade levels, per se, are never used in describing these materials to the Corpsmen. Instead, the materials are divided into nine reading levels. In the Job Corps Educational Program, they are always referred to in these terms. These levels roughly correspond to grade equivalents 3.5 to 7.5 as measured by Dale-Chall reading formulas. In addition to being arranged by levels, the Graded Reading Selections are identified by twenty-three topics. The Advanced Reading Program consists of the SRA IVA Reading Laboratory, and vocational and recreational reading materials.

Placement in the Program

A series of placement tests are an integral part of the program. They are designed to insure that the Corpsman starts his instruction at the point where he can learn most effectively. Upon a Corpsman's arrival at a Center, he is administered a screening test. From the results of this he may be channeled into a finer grained placement test which will place him into a specific level of either the Beginning or Intermediate Reading Programs.

Those trainees scoring extremely high on the initial screening test may be assigned directly into the Advanced Reading Program.

Operation of the Program

For Corpsmen who are identified from the initial screening test as possessing few reading skills, a placement test for the Beginning Reading Program is administered. There are eleven sections to this test. A Corpsman will take the first test and, if he passes it, will then take the subsequent tests until a failing score indicates need for work in the material covered by the specific test. Each of the tests is keyed to a specific book in the Beginning Reading series.

If a Corpsman fails the first test, he is routed into a pre-reading program which is designed to acquaint the learner with the letters of the alphabet, some initial sound-symbol relationships, the programed format, and other skills nec-

essary for successful work in the programed reading textbooks. Upon completion of the pre-reading program, the Corpsman is tested to determine if he has the skills necessary to begin the programed texts. Emphasis is placed upon having the Corpsman complete this aspect of the program as soon as possible. The feeling of accomplishment gained in reading a book for the first time is excellent reinforcement for continued progress in reading.

When a Corpsman reaches Book 8 of the Beginning Reading Program, half of his time is then spent in working in the Graded Reading Selections of the Intermediate Program. The Corpsman will continue to work in programed reading until he completes Book 11. He is then shifted completely into the Graded Reading Selections.

In the beginning segment of the reading program much individualized attention is required. This is a particularly acute need of the Corpsmen who are in the pre-reading program. Corpsmen who are working in the Advanced Reading Program are often assigned to give assistance to the instructor in working with these nonreaders. In addition many Centers have successfully employed volunteer help and VISTA Volunteers for this purpose.

Corpsmen may enter the Intermediate Program either by way of a placement test or by completing the Beginning Reading Program. The 2,000 Graded Reading Selections that comprise this part of the program are displayed in such a fashion that they are easily accessible for all Corpsmen. Each Corpsman is aware of his own reading level. A Master Index List containing the titles of all the reading selections along with their reading levels and topic categories is available for the Corpsman's use. The Corpsman is free to take a selection in any topic that interests him so long as he remains within his assigned reading level.

Following each of the reading selections is a short comprehension test. After reading the selection, the Corpsmen take this test. Answer Keys for each of the tests are available for Corpsmen to use. The Corpsman uses the Answer Key to grade his test and maintains a record of his progress.

In the Job Corps Program, the instructor has the role of consultant. He is available to help with any difficulties that might arise, and he decides, together with the Corpsman, when it is appropriate to move on to the next reading level. He oversees the entire program to ascertain that it is being implemented properly. He personally checks every fifth reading selection with the Corpsman to be sure that the boy is actually functioning at this level and that he is taking the tests properly and marking them accurately.

Upon completion of Level 9 of the Graded Reading Selections, Corpsmen are assigned to the less structured Advanced Reading Program. Corpsmen who have reached this level are often assigned as instructor aides for the Beginning and Intermediate Reading Programs, or they may devote more of their time to vocational training.

In addition to the basic program materials, Conservation Centers also have at their disposal Bell and Howell's Language Master and the Controlled Reader and Filmstrips produced by Educational Development Laboratories. With the Language Master, an audiovisual training instrument that permits presentation of visual and auditory material in small segments, it is possible to give auditory

and visual discrimination exercises that require little instructor direction. In addition to keying these exercises directly to the reading program, it is also possible to develop "talking dictionaries" for other areas of the educational program where the learning of key vocabulary words is important. The controlled reader is used to develop appropriate reading rates when Corpsmen have reached Job Corps Level 5.

Scheduling

According to Job Corps Policy, half of the Corpsman's time will be spent in educational programs and half of the time will be in conservation work. Since the Corpsmen are on a 40-hour weekly schedule, this means that 20 hours are to be utilized for basic and vocational education. Of these 20 hours, at least 10 must be spent in basic education (reading, mathematics, language and study skills, spelling, handwriting, etc.).

Typically, a Corpsman will spend from forty-five minutes to an hour a day in the Reading Program. He is placed into the program at the point where he can profit most efficiently from instruction. From that point he is advanced, on an individual basis, according to his ability to master the work. There is no issuance of marks by the instructor. They are not necessary for either evaluation or motivation. The desire to succeed for Corpsmen will come from their seeing the importance of developing reading skills in order to reach their goal of obtaining and keeping a good job. As far as evaluation is concerned, each Corpsman checks and records his own work on an almost daily basis, so that there is never any question as to his progress within the program at any given time.

A conscious effort has been made to make the class situation at Job Corps Centers unlike the typical school situation. In the basic education program the atmosphere is very informal, with Corpsmen working independently at various tasks. Smoking is generally permitted, and the Corpsmen may take coffee breaks or bring coffee to the work area. The instructor is freed from the duties of group instruction and can act as a resource person to assist individually those who are experiencing difficulty. Decision as to a Corpsman's ability to move to a higher reading level is not made unilaterally, but is the result of joint instructor-Corpsman decision based upon performance. Generally speaking, a Corpsman should work successfully a minimum of ten Graded Reading Selections before advancing to the next level. The time it takes to move from one level to another will vary according to ability and motivation.

It should be pointed out that the entire program is voluntary and that Corpsmen are under no obligation to remain there any longer than they wish. It must also be pointed out that these young men have gone to some trouble to join the program. In some cases they have waited for a vacancy to open up for them at a Center. Consequently, motivation is quite high.

Learning Gains

In a sampling of reading gains from Conservation Centers around the

nation, average reading gain of 1.7 grades in 5.1 months of training was reported. One Center reported that their trainees entered Job Corps with an average reading level of 3.6 and in 7½ months the level has risen by 1.8 grades. A second Center reported an average entry level of third grade and this was raised 2.7 grades in four months. A third reported the average entry grade level of 3.8 was raised 1.8 grades in four and a half months. While there does not now exist gains analysis for the entire Job Corps population, informal feedback from OEO field supervisors indicates that the above results represent a fairly typical pattern.

Educational Staff

So far nothing has been said about one of the most important factors in the reading program—the Job Corps instructors. No evidence exists on the learning gains of instructional staffs, but they must be considerable. While all of the instructors at Job Corps Conservation Centers have either education degrees or teaching experience, few have had the background of working in isolated rural areas in an institutional educational program with a population similar to Job Corps trainees. In addition, few have had experience or background in teaching the basic skills found in the Job Corps curriculum.

Job Corps' training division provides intensive staff training prior to an instructor's assignment to a Center, and there are reading consultants available who travel to the individual Centers to provide assistance as required. Even with this assistance, the burden in the implementation of this type of program must be born by the instructors. And as a group they have responded very well. This is not to indicate that there have not been instructors who have not demonstrated the flexibility and patience required for this type of program. There have been, of course, those who could not respond to the demands of the Job Corps Program, but their number is relatively small. One of the major contributions of the Job Corps Program might well be the development of a cadre of teachers who have gained valuable experience in this unique training program.

New Materials

As was indicated earlier, in the effort to initiate the reading program, available published materials were modified to fit the specific needs of the Job Corps population. By and large, the major emphasis is still on expanding the present basic education program in areas other than reading and mathematics. However, at this time the program development section of the Job Corps is looking closely at the present reading program with the purpose of supplementing and revising it as needed.

If commercial publishers produce materials that are suitable for Job Corps, then these materials will be used. If, on the other hand, a need is recognized and nothing is available on the market, then Job Corps is prepared to develop these materials. For example, a need was recognized for Graded Reading Selections geared specifically to Job Corpsmen as far as reading level, maturity level,

and interest were concerned. Since nothing like this existed on the market, through a contract, materials of this type were developed. They are now being delivered to Job Corps Centers throughout the country. These materials will be available through a commercial publisher to other educational agencies who may find them useful. Another example of materials developed specifically for Job Corps is a set of 600 Language Master Cards designed for use with the Beginning Reading Program. These cards contain key vocabulary words from this program. They may be used with little instructor direction.

Future Plans

The ultimate goals of Job Corps are clearly defined. For the future in educational program development, Job Corps will pursue any reasonable course that will aid in the attainment of those goals.

Student Teachers' Knowledge of Library Resources and Services

JERRY L. WALKER, *University of Illinois*

The modern high school library is not just a materials center, but a learning center. It is a place where students go to pursue learning in their own way at their own pace. It is a place where a student goes to reinforce skills and knowledges learned in class, to learn skills and knowledges not learned in class, and to search out the information needed to prepare for what he will learn in class. It is a place where information is packaged in multimedia containers. It is a place where information is stored and retrieved with mechanical efficiency. It is a place where librarians are not only library science specialists knowledgeable in the location of materials but also subject matter specialists knowledgeable in the structure of their disciplines. It is a place where teachers go to seek materials and guidance as a part of their preparation for teaching. And it is a place designed to accommodate a wide variety of activities—from individualized recreational reading, listening and viewing to large-group, closed-circuit television lectures. The size and complexity of the modern high school library demand special skills and knowledge from the teacher who would use it effectively, and those of us in teacher education must share the responsibility for providing those skills and knowledge.

As field worker for the Knapp School Libraries Project at Oak Park and River Forest High Schools in Illinois, I have two major responsibilities: conducting research to evaluate the program in the school and devising programs to educate teachers in effective use of the library as a multimedia learning center. Essential to both tasks is an initial assessment of teachers' knowledge and attitudes regarding the library, its services, and its personnel. In the time remaining I would like to acquaint you with some of the research I have conducted thus far. Because most of you are involved in student teaching, I will deal particularly with a study of student teachers' knowledge of library resources and skills.

Eighty-five student teachers were involved in the study. Twenty-nine of them were scheduled to teach at Oak Park and River Forest High Schools, and 18 were student teachers at Roosevelt High School in Portland, Oregon—another of the Phase III schools. The remaining 38 were students assigned to schools in and around Chicago. By subject area, there were 34 in English, 12 in social studies, 16 in science, 9 in foreign languages, 2 in speech, 2 in business education, 4 in art, 3 in physical education, and 1 in music.

The instrument used to gather the data was a 13-item questionnaire. Eleven

of the items were completion-type questions requiring factual answers; the other 2 were open-ended items requiring statements of opinion. Students were told to write "I don't know" for the factual items they couldn't answer. In reporting the findings to you, I will give them for the whole group first and for the student teachers in English second.

The first question was a simple one: *You can locate a book through the card catalog by looking up its* _____, _____, or _____. Eighty-two of the 85 students, including all of the English students, were able to fill in the blanks correctly with "title, author, or subject." Two students filled in the blanks incorrectly, and one responded, "I don't know."

The second question read: *If a student wanted to see if any magazine articles had been written on a topic you had given him to explore, what reference works would you direct him to?* Only 4 percent of the entire group were able to name two reference works; 87 percent named one; 2 percent responded, "I don't know"; and 7 percent named incorrect or nonexistent reference works. Of the English student teachers, 3 percent named two; 94 percent named one; and 3 percent responded, "I don't know." The most frequently named references were the *Reader's Guide* and *International Index*. Among the incorrect responses were "vertical file," "card catalog," and *Reader's Digest*.

In Item 3, the student teachers were asked: *Name two reference works you might direct a student to if he wanted to get some information about a famous living writer.* Only 25 percent of the entire group was able to name two correct references; 46 percent named one; 14 percent said, "I don't know"; and 15 percent named incorrect references. As you would suspect, English students did better than the others on this item, but still only 64 percent named two; 18 percent named one; 9 percent responded, "I don't know"; and 9 percent named wrong reference works. Many students simply named the card catalog as an appropriate reference, while others invented references such as the *Biographical Book*.

Item 4 asked for a more specific answer: *The number classification system used in most libraries is called* _____. Ninety-seven percent (including all of the English students) responded correctly; 1 percent didn't know; and 2 percent gave incorrect answers. The two incorrect responses were "call number classification" and "alphabetical."

Item 5 is especially pertinent to the teaching of English: *If you wanted to find out the approximate reading level of a work of fiction what references would you consult?* Only 19 percent of the entire group could name one reference, 46 percent responded "I don't know," and 35 percent named incorrect or nonexistent references. Of the English group, only 36 percent named one reference; 33 percent said, "I don't know"; and 31 percent responded with incorrect references. Among the correct answers were NCTE's *Books for You*, the *ALA Booklist*, the *Horn Book* publications, and the *Standard Catalog*. This item brought forth many interesting responses, such as "Look in the catalog that lists fiction books and it will usually help you," "Library science course notes," "Find criticism through PMLA," "Apply the Lorge readability formula," and "Ask the librarian."

Item 6 asked: *If a student wanted to find out the title of books written by a particular author, what source would you direct him to?* Five percent of the students responded with three correct references; 11 percent, two references; 48 percent, one reference; 20 percent "I don't know"; and 16 percent wrong sources. English student teachers did a little better than the group as a whole with 6 percent naming three references; 12 percent, two references; 62 percent, one reference; 12 percent, "I don't know"; and 8 percent wrong sources. The card catalog was by far the most frequently named source. *Books in Print* was named four times. Other responses included "authors' cross index," "the inside sheet of a book he wrote," "*Thesaurus of Book Digests,*" and "library science course notes."

Question 7 asked: *What source could a student consult to find out who said some famous line?* Two percent responded with two correct sources; 46 percent with one source; 22 percent with "I don't know"; and 30 percent with incorrect sources. Six percent of the English student teachers named two sources; 70 percent named one; 3 percent said, "I don't know"; and 20 percent named incorrect sources. Bartlett's *Familiar Quotations* was named most frequently. Many students, knowing that there is a specific source but being unable to name it, responded variously with "book on famous words and sayings," "anthology of famous remarks," "quotations reference," "various books of quotes," and "*Roget's Thesaurus.*" One honest response was, "Ask the librarian."

Item 8 stated: *The main difference between an opaque projector and an overhead projector is that* _____. Only 41 percent responded correctly with even a minor difference; 21 percent answered, "I don't know"; and 38 percent were completely wrong. Of the English group, 41 percent were right; 18 percent said "I don't know"; and 41 percent were wrong. Of all of the items, this one brought the strangest responses: "opaque projects prepared articles, while the overhead projects on-the-spot writing"; "overhead merely projects images, while the opaque is used for demonstration and illustrations"; "overhead uses transparencies; opaque uses films or slides"; "opaque can project ink; overhead uses transparencies and special pencil"; "opaque uses clear sheets and special pencil; overhead uses any paper"; "one must have the material locked and raised into position"; and finally "the opaque throws the picture forward; the overhead throws it behind the speaker."

Item 9 asked: *If you wanted to see if there were any filmstrips available on a given topic, what reference would you consult?* Fifty-four percent of the total population gave a correct reference—usually the card catalog or an AV Guide; 32 percent said, "I don't know"; and 14 percent gave incorrect references. Only 2 percent of the English group gave incorrect responses; 18 percent said "I don't know"; and 80 percent named a correct reference. Again, many students gave the sound advice, "Ask the librarian," but one student said he would "read *The New York Times.*"

Item 10 asked: *What materials are usually kept in a library's vertical files?* Fifty-seven percent of the total population named correctly at least one kind of material usually kept in the vertical files; 29 percent said, "I don't know"; and 14 percent named materials that would not be kept there. Only 50 percent of

the English group were correct; 20 percent said, "I don't know"; and 30 percent were wrong. Maps, charts, graphs, pamphlets, and magazine articles were the most commonly named materials. Other items receiving mention were "card catalog," "cards," "records," and "art objects."

Item 11 asked: *If a student wanted to do some research on the Cuban missile crisis, what sources would you direct him to?* Of the entire population, 22 percent named three sources; 25 percent named two; 41 percent named one; 8 percent said, "I don't know"; and 4 percent named incorrect sources. Forty-one percent of the English group named three references; 15 percent two references; 38 percent one reference; and 6 percent said, "I don't know." The *Reader's Guide*, the card catalog, and the *New York Times Index* were the most frequently named sources. Many students simply responded with "newspapers," "magazines," or "books."

Items 12 and 13 were open-ended questions designed to elicit the student teachers' opinions and knowledge of the services they could expect from libraries and librarians. The responses will be given in the order of the frequency of occurrence.

Item 12 asked: *How can the library be of service to you in your teaching?* The responses in order of their frequency were:

1. as a source of reference materials for students' research projects (24 responses, 14 of them by English students)
2. as a source of supplemental reading materials (23 responses, 16 by English students)
3. as a source of audiovisual aids (15 responses, 8 by English students)
4. as a source of materials for teacher research (13 responses, 3 by English students)
5. as a source of materials to be incorporated in teaching units (5 responses, none English students)
6. as a source of methods books (5 responses, 1 by an English student)
7. as a source of materials for students' recreational reading (4 responses, 4 by English students)
8. as a source of listings of new materials (4 responses, none by English students)
9. by awakening new interests in students (2 responses, 1 by an English student)

The remaining responses appeared only once:

10. as a source of motivational materials
11. as a place from which students can acquire books of their choice as I assign them (English student)
12. as a source of current magazines on the subject areas, as well as theses
13. by setting up a reserve shelf
14. by acquiring new books and making them available
15. by supplying historical background for student reports about period being studied (English student)
16. by having adequate materials

17. by providing technical aspects and information concerning contemporary movements in art
18. by being well organized
19. by providing reading lists
20. by providing information for ordering free and inexpensive materials
21. The teacher may get up-to-date material and information on almost any topic in the library (English student).
22. The library can be a kind of instructor for yourself if you know how to use it. It can be an instructor for the students if you are able to guide them to additional materials and references (English student).

Item 13 asked: *How can the librarian be of greatest service to you in your teaching?* These were the responses and their frequencies:

1. by keeping me informed of the latest materials (20 responses, 9 by English students)
2. by helping me locate the best materials (18 responses, 3 by English students)
3. by suggesting materials to incorporate into my units (13 responses, 7 by English students)
4. by teaching students how to use the library well (6 responses, 3 by English students)
5. by guiding students' reading (6 responses, 1 by an English student)
6. by providing lists of new books (5 responses, 3 by English students)
7. by putting on reserve the books related to the units I teach (2 responses)
8. by allowing students to use materials easily (2 responses, 1 by an English student)
9. by providing current books on teaching (2 responses, 1 by an English student)
10. by keeping the library collection up to date (2 responses)
11. by ordering needed material (2 responses)
12. by providing me with information about students' reading interests (2 responses, 1 by an English student)

The following responses occurred only once:

13. by answering questions about the library
14. by publicizing services available through the library
15. I can usually find things in the library. I just need help for very difficult questions.
16. She may be alert to my desires and be aware of new materials as they arrive. She may give me unlimited checkout time.
17. by keeping volumes filed in their proper places (English student)
18. by cooperating with library reading assignments (English student)
19. by helping students find books I have asked them to read (English)
20. By remaining aware of the recent science magazines, she will be able to assist me in the facets of biology that I am unaware of.

This study seems to support the conclusion that student teachers have very

limited knowledge of the resources available to them in the library. Only 4 percent of them could name more than one reference they could direct a student to for magazine articles, and 9 percent either didn't know any references or cited incorrect ones. Only 25 percent could name two sources of information about living writers, and 29 percent named wrong sources or none at all. Only 64 percent of even the student teachers in English could name two sources of information about writers, and 18 percent of the English students named no sources or wrong sources. Only 19 percent of the entire population and 36 percent of those in English could name even one reference that would indicate the reading level of a book, while 46 percent said they didn't know any such references and the remaining 35 percent would consult sources that would give them absolutely no help. Only 16 percent of the entire group, and 18 percent of the English group, could name more than one place to look for listings of an author's works, and 36 percent of the whole group and 20 percent of those in English either didn't know where to look or would look in the wrong place. A surprising 52 percent of the entire group could not name a correct reference for famous quotations. Only 41 percent could state a significant difference between opaque and overhead projectors. Only 54 percent know where to look for filmstrip listings, and only 57 percent can name even one kind of material kept in the library's vertical files. Twelve percent don't know where to direct a student to get information regarding a recent historical event, and only 47 percent could direct the student to more than one source. Certainly the evidence suggests that student teachers rely on a very limited number of references and sources of information: *Reader's Guide, International Index, Who's Who,* the card catalog, and the popular encyclopedias. Very few of them seem to know more specific reference works like *20th Century American Authors, The New York Times Index,* or *Books in Print.*

The data also suggest that student teachers have a very limited concept of how the library and the librarian can be of service to them in their teaching; most of their responses suggested that they view library services simply as adjuncts to their teaching, not as integral parts of it. The overwhelming frequency of responses regarding the value of the library as a source of materials for research, supplemental reading, and recreational reading materials highlights the tendency of student teachers to view library work as readiness or reinforcement, but not the actual learning itself. Learning, they seem to think, occurs only in their presence. Not one student mentioned the value of the library as a vehicle for promoting individualized instruction. Very few students even indicated any awareness that the library and librarian can be helpful to them as they plan their teaching units. Most of the services they named were those that occur after they have already decided what and how to teach. To be sure, the library and librarian should provide the materials and services teachers demand of them, but given the limited knowledge of library services and resources these student teachers have demonstrated, they are not really aware of how much more they could demand.

On the basis of this study and the work I have done so far with student teachers in the Knapp Project, I would make the following recommendations:

1. Prospective teachers should have a course in library science to acquaint them with library services and resources and new developments in library aims and practices.

2. There should be an inservice program in the schools to acquaint student teachers with the services and resources available to them in a particular school.

3. Either as part of their methods course, or as a separate workshop activity, student teachers should have practice using many different kinds of audiovisual equipment and preparing different kinds of audiovisual aids.

4. Included in their methods work should be attention to planning and executing a multimedia approach to learning. They need to study the relative effectiveness of the various media in various kinds of learning activities, whether one medium does a particular job better than another, and how one medium can complement another in the learning process.

5. Included in their methods work should be attention to ways to promote, initiate, conduct, and evaluate individualized instruction. They also need to be alerted to the need for it.

6. Student teachers should be encouraged to consult with the librarian during the planning of units and library activities for their students.

7. Included in their methods work should be attention to the relationship between method and content. Their tendency is to use the same method for all content, not realizing that one body of content is best taught by one set of methods and materials; another body of content, by a different set of methods and materials.

The trend, I think, is clear: the library will play an increasingly important role as the learning center of the school. New developments in electronics are revolutionizing the programing, storing, and retrieval of information. With programed learning, closed-circuit television, and computerized courses of study, the roles of the teacher and the librarian are certain to merge, and one will have to be the other as well. And we do our students a disservice if we prepare them for yesterday.

Evaluation of Children's Responses to Literature

DORIS YOUNG KUHN, *NCTE Research Foundation*

The Challenge of the Foundation

The subtitle of this report might well be "Unwillingly to Test." The steering committee and large item writing committee expressed so many concerns over the dangers of such a test and the limitations of a paper-pencil test that it seemed at times the task might not be completed. Yet all have recognized the importance of the project initiated by the Research Foundation of the National Council of Teachers of English. The process of developing an instrument to evaluate some facets of children's responses to literature has raised important questions about appreciation of literature, development of taste, and, in effect, teaching materials and methods.

Some educators object to the attempt to evaluate emotional responses, attitudes, beliefs. In the recent *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives II: Affective Domain* Krathwohl (10)* pointed out the erosion of educational objectives which were not evaluated for grading purposes. Have we already lost sight of the goal of teaching so that citizens appreciate literature? Problems of evaluating appreciation relate directly to preservice and inservice education of teachers of English at all levels.

The Research Foundation had announced the availability of funds for research. Surprisingly, only a few proposals were received. At that point, the Foundation became aware of the problems in planning research and discovered the need for evaluative instruments. A conference was called to discuss some guidelines for development of an instrument to test literary appreciation. Perhaps the development of such an instrument would lead to more fruitful research proposals. It was decided to ask a committee to develop a paper-pencil test for children in grades four to six. Margaret Early accepted the Foundation request that she direct the project.

A stream of questions about the proposal came to my mind as I considered the request to serve with Helen Caskey and Norine Odland on the steering committee. Should we test children's appreciation of literature? Can it be done by a paper-pencil instrument? When we begin testing, may we not destroy the very thing being measured? How can we really separate the literary text and the child's response to it from his background of experience, which is indeed part of that response? I reread the statement of the task—"a paper-pencil test for grades four, five, and six." But one test alone is not enough, I argued. Then I recalled

*Dr. Kuhn's notes appear on pages 74-75.

the many times I had spoken of appreciation as a goal of teaching, the many paragraphs I had read about its importance, the number of statements in curriculum guides which referred to appreciation of literature as an objective of the language arts program. Such statements certainly point to the need for means of evaluating the progress of children. How does the school determine its effectiveness if it does not gather evidence about the objective? It was time to try.

Review of Research

Using a bibliography prepared by Dr. Early, the committee reviewed research and wrote summaries to present at the 1964 Cleveland work conference.

The basic problem of defining appreciation was revealed by comparison of statements about appreciation. Dewey (6) had listed four levels of appreciation: mere vicarious experience, mere attention to form and technique, concern wholly for meanings incorporated in the work of art, identification of oneself with the author's creative experiences. Carroll (5) included "sensitivity to style, appreciate deeper meanings, and emotional capacity to respond to fine shades of meaning." Pooley (16) had written of ". . . the emotional responses which arise from basic recognitions, enhanced by an apprehension of the means by which they are aroused." Pooley had also written that "any measuring instrument which rests exclusively upon the student's ability to identify and explain the sources of appreciation without first measuring his inarticulate sensitivity to them is not a valid test." Can some means be determined to measure this nonverbal response? Smith (19) had described appreciation as "the personal acceptance of worth." How is personal acceptance reflected in the behavior of the child?

How had others attempted to measure these emotional responses, recognitions of merit, sensitivities to style? Several studies were based upon the idea that an individual's appreciation can be measured by noting how well he agrees with elements in the original work or those selections deemed best by a panel of experts. Thus, Ruhlen (17) asked subjects to choose one of three couplets which sounded best; Carroll (5) had children rate prose from good books, poor books, and mutilated versions; Eppel (7) had students select the best line to fill the gap in a poem. High school students in a study by Burton (2) were asked to select the best of three endings given for a short story; Cannon (3) asked students to match two prose passages of ten authors.

A number of investigators used the galvanometer and pneumograph to measure physiological changes which might reflect emotional responses. Broom (1) used a galvanometer to determine emotional reactions as certain words were read. Hruza (9) measured changes in pneumograph and galvanometer records as college students listened to fifteen poems. She also used introspection to elicit awareness of emotional responses, and found some subjects had large and continuous galvanic reactions without expressed awareness of emotional reaction. The problem of isolating the many factors such as personal experience and recent events was recognized. L. Smith (20) checked overt responses of two- to four-year-olds as they listened. Laughter, smiles, clapping hands, nods, or expressions of annoyance were kinds of behaviors analyzed. Other investigators used methods

of verbal introspection to assess responses to literature. Piekarz (15) asked sixth graders to read a selection and then talk about words and phrases from the selection which were written on cards. Letton (11) also had ninth grade students report what they thought as they responded to cards with "thought units." Seventh graders were interviewed by Foreman (8) to determine student's "concept of the reality and humanness of the characters in a story; the awareness of the story purpose and trend; the pictures which are stimulated by the author's description and completed through the child's experiences." Skelton (18) analyzed responses to poetry as fourth, fifth and sixth graders wrote "what the poem means." In 1948 Loban (13) had suggested several approaches as a plot completion test to identify improbable coincidences or sudden changes of character, a scale of sensitivity to feelings of a character, or a Social Distance Scale related to a character, asking students to give reasons for the character's choice. His 1953 study (12) of secondary school students' social sensitivity to literature followed one of these earlier suggestions.

Many studies of pupil interests and preferences for prose and poetry selections have been reported. For example, Cappa (4) had analyzed responses of kindergarten children, noting interests in storybooks read by the teachers. Mackintosh (14) was one of the early investigators of poetry preferences and Wells' (21) study of taste in humorous literature revealed preferences for absurdity, slapstick, satire, and whimsy, in respective order. If a child tends to like more poems of "literary merit," has he reached a higher level of appreciation? What is available for him to read is another significant question related to development of appreciation.

Examination of tests for secondary school students revealed types of items which might be considered for the instrument we hoped to create for intermediate grades. These tests asked subjects to select the "best poetry" of a group of stanzas, to identify theme, to indicate sensory appeals, to indicate awareness of figurative language, etc.

Developing the Instrument

The stream of questions emerged as a flood as the committee worked in Cleveland; yet we felt the task should be attempted. In its report to the Foundation, the committee stressed the need for research which would include varied approaches to evaluation. We were, and continue to be, especially concerned that the study include analysis of materials available and the child's actual reading. The use of interviews and evidence regarding nonverbal response was suggested. Recognizing the problem of response to short selections, the committee recommended that some instrument be developed to assess responses to longer works of fiction.

Teachers, principals, college teachers, and librarians met in Champaign, Illinois, in June to construct test items. The participants in this conference underwent stages of thinking similar to those of the members of the steering committee. Fears and doubts about paper-pencil tests were expressed. It took much time to explore the specific behaviors we hoped to measure.

One approach to the study was seen to be the presentation of a selection

followed by a study of the child's response to the whole. His degree of enjoyment, awareness of meaning, and recognition of value to him were identified as factors to consider. As so many teachers and librarians have noted, observation plus knowledge of the child gives evidence of his response. They say, "There's a gleam in his eye," "I just know by his expression that he understands," or "Through discussion he reveals his understanding and appreciation." The group discussed the importance of such observations and some onsidered preparation of an instrument which might be used.

Another approach suggested was that of identifying components of appreciation with their related behaviors. *Interests, attitudes,* and *preferences* were seen as one component of appreciation evidenced by such behavior as choosing to listen, listening with attention, choosing reading as an activity, reading a variety of materials, giving attention to different forms. This behavior could be assessed by keeping records of the child's reading, by anecdotal records, or by checking expressions on a preference scale. *Comprehension* was seen as another component of appreciation. Reading tests would give information regarding vocabulary and general comprehension skills. Comprehension of such elements as plot, conflict, and character development in each selection becomes the basis for appreciation. *Knowledge* of standard works (plot, characters, situations), familiarity with authors and illustrators, understanding of literary types or genres, and knowledge of methods of study form another component of appreciation. Written tests, use of allusions in his own compositions, analysis of the child's book reviews would provide data regarding knowledge necessary for appreciation of literature. *Emotional response* was identified as a further component of appreciation. The nonverbal feelings may be expressed through overt behavior or may be recalled through introspection. A smile, holding the breath, tears may indicate emotional response. We may ask the child to recall how he felt when he read a particular passage. Can he remember? Does he describe what he thinks the teacher wants to hear? What is the effect of background of experience? What is the effect of immediate events, the mood of the day? The *imaginative response* and *sensory response* components are closely related. Verbal comments such as, "I know how it feels," "You could smell the salt air," "I really felt the spookiness," reveal these kinds of responses. Sensitivity to sound effects of language, mood, figurative language, recognition of plot structure, awareness of character delineation, or effect of setting are examples of the component of appreciation termed *awareness of literary devices.* Written tests could be devised to assess this awareness. *Apprehension of meanings* would include recognition of values expressed, theme, moral, or universal questions, while the component *application of meanings* would relate meaning to the individual's life experience. *Judging literary quality* is expressed as the child determines literary merit in terms of other books he knows and criteria he is developing. Preferences could be studied, choices determined, book reviews analyzed, and a written test devised to obtain evidence about these aspects of appreciation.

Small work groups proceeded to construct items based upon short selections. It was proposed that a longer selection be presented on one day with a follow-up test on the next day, but there was not time to develop this.

Material

It was agreed that selections should represent good literary quality. The committee decided that selections should include myth, fable, folktale, fantasy, realistic fiction, rhymed verse, unrhymed poetry, and both lyric and narrative poetry. It was decided that the component of appreciation which we could consider in this instrument was awareness of literary devices and meanings. It was agreed that the manual should indicate that other components were as important as this one, they should be evaluated, and suggestions for use of the test should be included.

In November the steering committee met in Boston to classify items on prose selections according to the types of responses each seemed to measure. Awareness of meaning was divided into literal and beyond the literal. Now we realized we needed items on awareness of setting, plot, conflict, mood, identification of the narrator. We found there were items for awareness of sound effects, figurative language, identifying genre and dialect, but we needed more items that test awareness of diction, dialect, consistency of characterization, elements of humor. A review of the selections indicated we needed more selections which were easier. There was a great need for more poetry selections. To test awareness of form (including rhythm, assonance, "eye shape," alliteration), symbolism and metaphoric language, and appeals to senses, we needed more poetry and more items.

Work continued and more materials were sent to Educational Testing Service, which is cooperating in the development of the test. ETS will assist with writing items, trying out forms, and standardizing the instrument. It is still in process.

One problem not yet solved is that of oral reading of poetry. Should there be a recording of the poetry so children hear it instead of reading silently?

Another question relates to preference items. Should we ask children to express preference for one poem over another? To what degree would differences in content, length of poem, rhyme, etc., influence the preference? How could we obtain the child's reason for selecting one poem instead of another? How many similar choice items would be needed? These are the kinds of problems we continue to meet.

Implications for teacher education

What are some of the implications of the work of the Foundation in trying to develop an instrument for research related to appreciation of literature for education of teachers of English? I have identified three questions which may be discussed:

1. How do we help preservice and inservice teachers become aware of the behavioral aspects of such objectives as "appreciation of literature"? Appreciation is closely related to the cognitive domain and affective domain, as pointed out by Krathwohl *et al.* (10). We have assumed that developing cognitive behavior will also develop affective behavior, but this is not true. Knowledge of selections of literature has not produced

interest in literature. How does this problem affect practices in literature classes, methods classes, and student teaching?

2. How do we prepare teachers who are growing in their own appreciations? Are they aware of the process of literary criticism, or methods of literary criticism? Or do they follow the practice of a bright student completing a 24-hour "second major" in literature who says, "I try to tune in on the professor's method of study; I really haven't been taught any principles of literary criticism. I think you get methods of study in graduate school." How do we teach "structure of the discipline" as suggested by Bruner? Related to this is the problem of relating study of literature to the materials designated as children's literature.

   Another aspect of the problem is development of taste. Do teachers understand the process of valuing? Do they continue to believe exposure to good literature is enough? How do we prepare teachers who are skilled in guiding pupils so they develop criteria for making value judgments?

3. How shall we help preservice and inservice teachers develop skill in evaluating growth of students? We need to help them develop methods of evaluation, to go beyond marking compositions. If we do not consciously evaluate the many components of appreciation, will we continue to fail in this objective?

Several members of the committee expressed concern that teachers would misuse the instrument we were developing. Teachers have misused intelligence tests, achievement tests, and sociograms, but the fault lies in not understanding the limitations of the instrument. How do we prepare teachers who are capable of using instruments effectively? What is done to engender interest in research, both their own classroom research and research findings of others? What instruments are used in college literature classes to evaluate growth in students? Future teachers do learn about teaching from the teaching-learning experiences they encounter. Is the cognitive domain the only area for evaluation? In methods classes and student teaching, what experiences should students have in constructing tests and using a variety of instruments to gather information about pupils' progress in both the cognitive domain and affective domain?

The need for research in the teaching of literature is one of the major needs in teaching English language arts. The development of one paper-pencil instrument to measure awareness of literary devices and meanings is but one small part of the major task of developing means to study children's responses to literature.

References

1. Broom, M. E. "A Study of Literary Appreciation," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 18:357-63, 1954.
2. Burton, D. L. "The Relationship of Literary Appreciation to Certain Measurable Factors," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 43:436-39, 1952.
3. Cannon, A. "Testing the Appreciation of Style," *English Journal*, 26:648-54, 1937.

4. Cappa, D. "Kindergarten Children's Responses to Storybooks Read by Teachers," *Journal of Educational Research*, 52:75, 1958.
5. Carroll, H. A. "Appreciation of Literature and Abstract Intelligence," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 25:54-57, 1934.
6. Dewey, J. *Art as Experience*. Reissued; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959, Capricorn 1.
7. Eppel, E. M. "A New Test of Poetry Discrimination," *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 20:111-16, 1950.
8. Foreman, E. "An Instrument to Evaluate the Literary Appreciation of Adolescence." Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois, 1951.
9. Hruza, T. E. "An Investigation of Some Factors in the Appreciation of Poetry." Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, George Peabody College, 1940.
10. Krathwohl, D., *et al. Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, The Classification of Educational Goals, Handbook II: Affective Domain*. New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1964.
11. Letton, M. "Individual Differences in Interpretive Responses in Reading Poetry at the Ninth Grade Level." Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago, 1958.
12. Loban, W. "A Study of Social Sensitivity (Sympathy) Among Adolescents," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 44:102-12, 1953.
13. _____. "Evaluating Growth in the Study of Literature," *English Journal*, 37:277-83, 1948.
14. Mackintosh, H. K. "A Critical Study of Children's Choices in Poetry," *University of Iowa Studies in Education*, No. 4:7, 1932.
15. Piekarz, J. A. "Getting Meaning from Reading," *Elementary School Journal*, 36:303-09, 1936.
16. Pooley, R. C. "Measuring Appreciation of Literature," *English Journal*, 24:627-33, 1935.
17. Ruhlen, H. V. "Experiment in Testing Appreciation," *English Journal*, 15:202-9, 1926.
18. Skelton, G. "A Study of Responses to Selected Poems in the Fourth, Fifth, and Sixth Grades," Unpublished dissertation, University of California, Berkeley, 1963.
19. Smith, D. V. "Stimulating Interests and Appreciation Through Reading," *Elementary English Review*, 17:171, 1940.
20. Smith, L. Z. "Experimental Investigation of Young Children's Interest and Expressive Behavior Responses to Single Statement, Verbal Repetition, and Ideational Repetition of Content in Animal Stories," *Child Development*, 1:247, 1930.
21. Wells, R. E. "A Study of Taste in Humorous Literature Among Pupils of Junior and Senior High Schools," *Journal of Educational Research*, 28:81-91, 1934.

A Composition Institute

JOHN PORTZ, *University of Maryland*

I have only the vaguest notion of how to judge the effectiveness of an institute, but I am pretty sure that the director is the last person who should be allowed to do it. He has all sorts of personal and professional axes, psychological and otherwise, to grind. And he is naturally reluctant to admit that, by and large, he is flying blind and biased and is thus being very subjective in judging his own institute. Sometimes I dispose of the problem of assessment with the thought that all institutes are, like Caesar's wife, above suspicion and judgment, if only for the reason that they are so badly, so appallingly badly needed. *Anything* they do—good, bad, or indifferent—is at least a stimulus to a sagging educational situation. I also admit to a certain suspicion of evaluations, partly out of ignorance of the techniques and the machinery involved, and partly out of a perverse pride in the slowly dying academic legend about the royal subjectivity and therefore unassessability of the English discipline—especially where writing is concerned. But then I know that this line of argument will never do, and that there really is no one else to undertake the risky task of evaluation.

My methods of assessment, therefore, are rudimentary in the extreme and involve me in a great heresy to scientific method: that of taking the word of my participants. To put it plainly, what I know is what I have gleaned from phone calls, conversations, and a few, nonpunitive visitings of classes. I have sent out newsletters soliciting information, and most of what I have on hand has been extracted from the letters of reply that kind (and sometimes justifiably proud) participants have sent me. It is as simple, uncomplicated, and unscientific as that.

I am both delighted and disbelieving at the reports that have so far come in: delighted because of the vigor and affirmation with which some of our teachers have applied what they learned at the institute; and disbelieving, because it is all too good to be true. Out of 45 participants, 20 have now responded to my newsletters and inquiries. Of these, only 13 have written in any serious way about the effects of their institute experience. The others say simply hello and didn't we have a fine time last summer and my work is going so much better now and say hello to Mrs. Portz—but they do not explain exactly in what way their work is going better. But the 13 who *have* written seriously and at length are wonderful and have opened my eyes. Wide. I at least *begin* to believe.

I should perhaps first evoke the atmosphere and build some facts. Our 1965 institute was a Special Institute in Advanced Composition. Now among all the branches of "English," composition is the one most disliked and feared by

teachers, even as they admit its necessity. And what they especially dislike about it is what they feel to be its lack of what they call "content," and what they fear is the boredom it exacts from themselves as well as from their pupils. A corollary of this is that a composition institute itself can very easily turn into a squirrel-cage of anxieties. Unquestionably, there is something about the act of writing that dusts off and summons forth latent neuroses. Many English teachers are very defensive and touchy about their prose—usually in indirect ratio to their ability to handle it—and the exorcising of neurotic symptoms is one of the chief extracurricular activities of the staff of any composition institute. At the end of six weeks, we were wrung out and ready to be hung on the line.

The altogether obvious goals of the institute, in broad terms, were, first, to improve the writing skills of the participants themselves, by means of a course stressing rhetorical and logical discipline; and second, to help our participants with the problem of teaching writing effectively to their high school students. All very standard. In my own mind, long before the institute began, I had decided that the primary purpose of the institute would be to do something about the writing of our participants, and I had reached this determination by means of the usual cliché that the teacher who writes best himself will naturally *teach* writing best. But very early in the game I began to perceive that our applicants had another idea. Very few made mention of a need for a course in rhetoric and logic for the purpose of improving their own writing skills; rather, what I heard were cries of anxiety and boredom about what they felt was the most pressing classroom crisis in the language arts: how to *teach* writing interestingly. What follows from this is that, pretty inevitably, composition institutes must pay much more attention to teaching methods than other types of institutes, and accordingly, that a solid block of time must be devoted to these methods. At least that was the case in *our* institute. And I do not shy away from the horrid term "workshop."

But, considering the initial apathy about rhetoric as a means of improving one's own writing skills, I had hardly expected to learn from the letters of our voluble 13 that 7 of them had gone home and created composition courses constructed along the lines of rhetoric and logic. This, indeed, has been the primary outcome of our institute so far, and I—in a sort of anxiety reaction—suddenly began to imagine 45 university-level, terribly difficult rhetoric courses being perpetrated by our institute on hapless, uncomprehending high school students all over the country. I blenched when I thought of the most mercurial and yeasty of my participants engaging in such a course, and of the general danger of teachers' using in their high school classes unadapted or undigested university materials. Among our soberer participants, simplified rhetoric-oriented composition courses are sprouting like potatoes in a cellar, and I gather that, although initial student response is negative to such courses, both teachers and students eventually end by saying, in one fashion or another, that rhetoric has added "content" to their composition courses. What they mean, I think, is that the structure of the course itself constitutes "content," as does the progressive study of stylistic techniques and organizational principles.

Incidentally, what has not become clear to me is whether a rhetorical and

logical approach can be successfully taken with *slow* learners. I suspect not. Some of our participants teach very slow students, but unfortunately none of the teachers in this particular situation has written me. Perhaps there is just not anything to write. It is entirely possible that these teachers can apply very little of what they learned with us last summer. Let me add that I am not at this point especially holding a brief for rhetoric as the long-sought panacea for the universally acknowledged ills of teaching composition. I think that, if we had chosen a nonrhetorical approach, we still would have received enthusiastic letters. Why? Because the teachers were crying for a reasoned approach, *any* rationally integrated approach to the teaching of composition. Anything is better than wandering through a jungle of vague assignments on personal topics, and quibbling about semicolons and split infinitives, and writing in a vacuum.

Much of what I have been describing, you will note, is by way of being a rather unexpected bonus of our course in rhetoric and logic. The *expected* outcome of the course was that the participants should themselves write better; and *that*, by the end of six weeks, they certainly did, although only two of them in their letters have remarked on an improved personal style. Whether their writing will stay improved is another question. Writing is a skill which flourishes with use and languishes without it; and high school English teachers, ironically, seem to have little time to practice what they have to preach to their young scholars. Unhappily, no one can learn to write from grading other people's papers.

Now for some other reports—I dare not call them statistics: four of our participants say they have designed sequential programs in composition, which was where lay the chief emphasis of our methods course. Three of our 13 are engaged in revising the whole English curriculum. Three have begun team teaching; others insist that their students do their writing about literature; and a number say that their comments on papers are more cogent and more useful to their students. A few now permit rewrite jobs to raise grades. Only one says that he uses the new grammar as an adjunct to composition. It is evident that a good deal of adaptation to local situations is occurring, and this is as it should be.

All of this may not seem very exciting, but a promising generalization emerges from my correspondence: the student can at least recognize a progression, a plan, and therefore, in a sense, a content in a course which he had heretofore concluded had no content. He can see it now as a pattern of related ideas, as a body of problems capable of being solved, to some degree, by graduated application. As for the act of writing itself, it is less exasperating and baffling because it is less treated as an act involving divine inspiration or gawky self-revelation. I wonder how many university courses can lay claim to such results?

Let me say something briefly about the notoriously slippery phrase in Title XI, "new materials." All of us directors, in the end, are pleased at the convenient bagginess of the phrase because we can make it mean anything we want; in a way, it is our legal license to experiment. For purposes of this talk, however, I want to construe the phrase arbitrarily as referring only to two items in use at our institute: the overhead projector and the EIMC materials.

The overhead projector has been around for a long time (although not quite as long as rhetoric), and its reputation had been both bright and tarnished

alternately, as it has gone in and out of fashion, but, as you know, right now it is a hot property. We pushed it—gently—in summer '65, and as a result, five of our participants have cajoled, wheedled, or chivvied the authorities into either buying one of these awesome instruments or into assigning a projector specifically to our participant for purposes of experimentation. And once you have such an instrument under your nose, you can hardly avoid using it. I am pleased at this result because I am convinced that the overhead projector, flexible and versatile as it is, offers a greater opportunity for originality and creativity in teaching composition than any other teaching aid with which I am familiar. I am, however, not equally convinced that it can be integrated, in any *basic* way, into the teaching of literature.

By way of contrast, a disquieting silence hovers over the whole matter of the EIMC materials. It is true that we did not make maximum use of these new materials developed in curriculum centers all over the country and available only to NDEA institutes, but during our session a number of our participants commented enthusiastically on them. It does seem odd, then, that there is not so much as a syllable concerning them in the letters I have received. Not that I think that they are not being used. Far from it. My unflattering conjecture is that no one has mentioned them because they are being used in illegal ways, ways expressly forbidden by copyright law. I console myself with the thought that I belong to a profession in which the subtler forms of plagiarism are a way of life, and in which intellectual cross-fertilization is endemic to the species. I have no doubt that the profession is already plotting ways of circumventing and nullifying the proposed new copyright law which looms before us, threatening our classroom autonomy.

I think it is fair to say that all 45 of our participants were well motivated. But the 13, the content of whose letters I have just ground into crude enumerations, were exceptionally vigorous and energetic people. All of them were superior students, and most had a clear and distinct objective in mind in coming to our institute. Many were in positions of authority and had facing them, in September, the job of arranging a new composition course plan. We had tried to select key people, by which we meant those who would be able and willing to use what they learned from us in order to influence other teachers, as well as their own students. This year—so the grapevine tells me—people are not applying to institutes in such great numbers, at least in part because they see last year's participants given—or saddled, or burdened (pick your own verb)—with extra duties and responsibilities as a result of their attending an institute. This, I take it, is both the price and the evidence of success. It also is one unhappily negative measure of public influence.

Well, what *has* been the public effect of my participants? What reverberations *have* they produced in their schools and elsewhere? Mother Therese has adopted a sequential program, has been given four years in which to implement it, and has now found that a sister school will follow her example. Mrs. Thatcher has gone on Educational TV. Mr. Ewing has made a number of speeches. Sister Jeanette and Mrs. Samson have lectured at workshops. Mr. Kanzelberger has conducted a series of training sessions for his teachers. Mr. Feaster has bullied

teachers into following his lead. Mrs. Kirwan's new sequential composition course will be expanded next year into a composition program for all classes at her school, and her experimental work with advanced classes is triggering a new county curriculum study. She has also spoken at faculty and inservice meetings and at the Louisville CTE and is signed up for an article in the *Kentucky Bulletin*. Clearly, in the eight months since last August, some of my people have been actively spreading the word.

All of this is, as I have said before, too good to be true. I am not sure that I am having the unvarnished truth told me. After all, like the husband, the director is the last to know. To the faculty, "Director" is a title that customarily deserves to be preceded by the adjective *social*—and followed by a sniff. A faculty may take the anciently honorable view of the administrator as one who could not cut it in teaching and who would have perished in the publishing game. The director and his faculty do not always see eye to eye, and in fact, may sometimes be eyeball to eyeball. But to participants, the director is the fair-haired boy who, in participant mythology, passed out the fellowships and therefore must have had undying faith in their abilities. He is also the dispenser of cocktail parties and other communal goodies, and in short, he seems *to care*. As a consequence, there may be a feeling of attachment and indebtedness, and then a reluctance to admit the drab, unflattering truth, and finally a tendency to tell the director what participants imagine the director wishes to hear. So, I hereby call attention to the grains of salt I have dusted throughout this talk.

Since I find most of what I have said above very encouraging, I have to keep reminding myself that what I have given you is really very meager, the reportings of a handful of grateful teachers—mere guesses, subjectivisms from one quarter of our participants, and I often wonder about the other three quarters. No news is not necessarily good news. I also remind myself that where so personal and subjective a human phenomenon as teaching is concerned—and more precisely, the teaching of the impossible art of writing—all judgment is built on sand. There are simply too many variables for judgment to control. Quality cannot be quantified. Such reminders may help me to avoid the big, heart-clutching generalization that should bring my paper to a close on a rising, emotional note.

If someone were to ask me—which nobody has—what the future is likely to be for the NDEA program, I would say that it is likely to be brightest if the individual institutes are flexible in their structure, experimental and revolutionary in their concept—in brief, if they do not follow the traditional academic pathways. And I would suppose that in the future the emphasis might very well be on special institutes dealing with rather tightly circumscribed academic areas, rather than on general institutes. I am not really beating the drum. But we found it hard enough—indeed, impossible—to cram into six weeks all we had to say about composition. Of course Special Institutes generate their own special problems, the chief of which I take to be that such institutes do not have the relief of contrast and balance. One pays a certain price for six weeks of unremitting, day-long, night-long work on a single area such as composition. On the other hand, institutes on special subjects offer the most concentrated chance of

working a basic alteration in the teacher's knowledge of and attitude toward that subject.

I have said elsewhere that a teacher should attend an institute only if he is prepared to have his ideas on the subject shaken up, rearranged, and renewed. Was this accomplished at our Institute last summer? Well, it is certainly true as far as my magnificent 13 are concerned. But the majority report is still to come in—and I try to hold firm to the strength that skepticism lends. Nevertheless, between you and me, I secretly nourish the belief that, because of their institute experience, all 45 of my participants, if nothing else, at least walk with more confidence up the down staircase of composition.

Teaching Literature in the Space Age

ARLIN TURNER, *Duke University*

It is a genuine pleasure for me to be invited here to speak this evening. For one thing, the Conference on English Education is a thriving young organization which has an important role to fill in the years before us, and it has set about its task with convincing earnestness. I wish for the Conference all the achievement promised by its beginnings.

I am pleased to be here also because of the occasion I thus have to tell you something about the Commission on Literature. Beyond that, I want to pass along to you some thoughts I have on the teaching of literature in our age, which is already recorded as the space age in man's long history. The name fits well into the sequence: the stone age, the bronze age, and the others. I wonder, though, whether we are not unique in this regard, in that we have been consciously present at the birth and the christening of our age.

There is no need to speak in apocalyptic tones, but it is not surprising, I'd say, that people nowadays are inspecting the anchors of their thought, to determine which ones of them still hold, now that we are all residents in the world of science fiction, in which man finds that he can travel beyond the gravitational reach of the earth—and can survive there. Let me add that in presenting my thoughts in this area, on the space age, I'll be speaking for myself rather than the Commission on Literature, though the general slant and import of my remarks would not be new or strange to members of the Commission.

Many of you, most of you perhaps, are aware that the Commission on Literature has been in existence roughly two years now, and that it has made a deliberate and unshowy but significant beginning in the activities intended for it.

The idea of a Commission on Literature was first advanced by James E. Miller in an editorial in *College English*. He noted that the National Council of Teachers of English had no subsidiary or collateral agency to do for literature and the teaching of literature what was being done for composition and for language. The Executive Committee of the NCTE authorized the establishment of a permanent Commission with rotating membership; the initial members were appointed in the summer of 1964, and the first meeting was held early in November of that year. Since then, there have been three two-day independent meetings of the full membership, plus two meetings in conjunction with the annual convention of the NCTE, plus separate working meetings of committees of the Commission.

As first conceived, the Commission would concern itself primarily with literature in education—and at all levels, from preschool to graduate school, and especially the middle ranges, high school and college. The NCTE seemed most appropriate for such a concern, since it is the only national organization having the span required. But from the outset, it was recognized that literature does not belong solely to the classroom, much as we teachers may at times seem to imply it does, or much as some of our students may seem ready to believe it does. In the planning and in the activities of the Commission from the first, one eye has been kept on problems related to literature in society at large, as well as in education. The membership on the Commission reflects that breadth of concern. There are members from the various levels and types of education relating to literature; and along with these members who teach literature there are two members who produce literature: the novelist John Hersey and the poet William Stafford. One member is the editor of *Harper's* magazine; another is a librarian. In addition, representatives of other organizations concerned with literature in the academic world are members of the Commission: the Modern Language Association, the College English Association, the American Library Association, and the International Reading Association. It is worth adding, I think, by way of indicating the degree of approval the idea of a Commission had at the beginning, that of the more than twenty initially asked to become members, all accepted but one, who had a conflict he could not remedy.

Several considerations have influenced the growth of the idea and the plans for the Commission on Literature. One consideration is the example of the extensive and radical development that has taken place in the teaching of mathematics, the sciences, and the modern languages, and that apparently will take place also in the area of the social sciences. This development has been prompted, as we know, by the sense of emergency which followed the appearance of the first Russian Sputnik, and it has been supported by funds such as were not available—or even imagined—before, new funds mainly from the federal government. But the developments in the teaching of science and modern foreign languages have owed much to the efforts and the imagination—we might even say the daring—of the teachers and their professional organizations. The new programs in mathematics and the sciences which have been moving over the country, were developed at ESI (Educational Services Incorporated), which has been directed chiefly by professors at Harvard University and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. It is less surprising, I suppose, that ESI has been amply financed by foundation grants ("We are a frightfully expensive organization," one of the directors told the Commission on Literature when we spent a day visiting ESI last spring)—it is less surprising, I say, that funds have been provided than that Nobel Prize winning physicists and other comparably distinguished scientists and mathematicians have been willing to leave their normal work and spend time in joint efforts to work out courses of study from the elementary grades onward.

If anyone needed—and surely no one does—if anyone needed evidence that literature, along with other subjects among the humanities, is being swept into a new age, not far in the wake of the sciences and the social sciences, he

need only take notice of the new funds becoming available, chiefly from Congressional appropriations. Actually, English teachers and English departments have all along been applauded and rewarded, at least moderately, for their practical services in teaching oral and written composition, reading comprehension, and linguistics. The deans of medical schools I've known, along with the deans of engineering, have been great supporters of English, by which they have meant remedial English mainly. One dean of engineering, some years back, liked to tell how some of his engineering students were majoring in freshman English. These deans were glad we continued to teach Shakespeare, they said. For when a doctor has put in his day at the office or a scientist his day in the laboratory, . . . You know the reasoning. My university has had for some time a program of development and teaching in gerontology. We in the English department have made jokes about going into the field of literature for the aging and applying to the National Institutes of Health for funds to support ourselves and our students. Those were good jokes—I suppose they were. But I have a tinge of fear that our jokes may have been on ourselves more than anyone else.

At any rate, we have not laid out research projects on literature for the aging, or on the therapeutic properties of this or that piece of literature. We have continued the even tenor of our ways of teaching literature. We have taken our position in education for granted, and others have taken us for granted. Of course every grade, every high school, every college, every university must teach literature and hence must have teachers of literature. But as we realize that new developments in governmental support will give the teaching of literature a measure of prosperity—and we suppose commensurate prestige—we can no longer expect to be, or will we be satisfied to be, taken for granted. A major purpose of the Commission on Literature is to help discover and develop means of using the new resources and the new opportunities to greatest advantage.

The Commission on Literature expects to remain an agency for ideas, theories, speculations, proposals, and policies. It expects not to carry out projects of experiment or development, but rather to propose undertakings which other agencies, organizations, or individuals will carry out; when appropriate it will serve in a supervisory or consultative capacity. Bringing interested groups together, or suggesting joint action by various agencies, promises to be one of the most useful functions of the Commission. The following may be mentioned as examples of projects initiated by the Commission and now in progress:

1. A pamphlet, a sort of casebook on literary censorship
2. A series of essays on literature in the elementary grades
3. A comparable series on teaching literature in high school
4. A statement of the position of literature in education and in society at large.

Other matters proposed but as yet not in progress have to do with the literature included in humanities courses in schools and colleges; the effects of speed-up programs on the total curriculum in literature; the literature chosen for students of various levels of ability and various curricula in schools and

colleges; means of encouraging the writing and the publication of books especially useful in education; areas of understanding and misunderstanding between the educators on the one hand and the authors and publishers of books used in education on the other. Plans on the last of these topics have been held up, pending some resolution of the copyright issue. It may be that further delay will be desirable, until there is a new law—or the attempt to write a new law is abandoned, as it seems now may be the case. When the matter of the law is settled, when emotions have subsided, and when the spokesmen for publishers and authors have time to remember that teachers are in effect their constituents and their friends, then the Commission may be able to encourage or possibly sponsor joint efforts to produce understandings, attitudes, practices, policies, or even codes which will benefit all concerned. Because the Commission on Literature has members who can speak for teachers at all levels, librarians, authors, editors, and publishers, it seems a plausible agent to initiate such efforts.

Let me note that the Executive Committee and the officers and the staff of the NCTE have given the Commission both encouragement and scope for its activities. The Commission was invited to sponsor the Affiliate Breakfast at the NCTE meeting in Boston last November, for example, and it has been invited also to assist in planning a sequence of programs on literature for the convention in Houston next fall. A member of the Commission will deliver the address introducing this sequence.

When the twenty-four members of the Commission sat down at the long table for its first meeting in New York a year and a half ago, there was room for uneasiness, as Louise Rosenblatt, Robert Carlsen, James R. Squire, Albert Kitzhaber, and John H. Fisher will recall. One could imagine the group flying apart, into twenty-four segments, and marching away, each beating his own drum and listening to no other. But there was no such a flying apart, though there were a few awkward hiatuses in the threads of discussion the first day. The members have come to realize pointedly, I believe, that as representatives from different provinces in the literary world they have common interests and common goals, and to realize also that mutual usefulness need not depend on agreement at all points.

These sketchy notes on the Commission on Literature may suggest impossibly broad and diverse activities. But to my mind breadth and variety of affiliation are among its greatest assets. The signs are good, I think, that, rather than cancel each other out because of their great diversity, the members of the Commission will contribute strength not likely to be generated in a more homogeneous assemblage.

I remarked a minute ago that our age, the space age, has moved us irrecoverably beyond our former ways of thinking. The universe of Jules Verne or that of Edgar Allan Poe's Hans Pfaall is here now; the creators of science fiction and the far-out comic strips are having to scramble forward in breathless haste, for we have already homesteaded in their earlier realms of fantasy. The concepts of weightlessness and of space-time relationships have grown commonplace among us. Notice, too, what has been happening to our figures of speech and our figurative words (upon which we rely to suggest the greatest

subtleties of our thought and imagination): light as a feather, for example, adrift, earthbound. You can make your own list.

As is natural and proper, our scientists go along comfortably with this movement; they are both agents and products. And as they pursue and capture and interpret new molecules, they are prepared to dispel age-old mysteries and to cast error behind them. For in science the past can yield nothing to the future except error and curious relics.

Our colleagues, the social scientists, are busy discovering and describing the present. They may go on to predict the future or to try controlling conditions in a way to determine the future, but they work from standards of their own making within the framework of their own observation, subject to the methodology prevailing among them at a given time.

These remarks may seem to imply derogatory opinions of science and social science, either in education or the world outside. But I have no such intention. My purpose is only to suggest the sector each occupies in the total sphere which is education, or the life of modern man. Going further, I want to suggest, in equally broad terms, the sector appropriate to the humanities, and inside that the smaller sector which literature can claim. Through this image of the sphere and its sectors, I would like to say that in all logic literature should stay within its own bounds, that it should not attempt to usurp the function belonging to either of its two partners, and that whenever it borrows the materials or the methods of the other two, it should still maintain its identity and its distinctive qualities.

Again, if I have seemed to imply that literature's characteristic look should be backward over the shoulder, or that literary study should be antiquarian and impatient with the new, let me say that such is by no means my intention. I would say, further, that we have had dramatic examples in the history of education to teach us what results from a failure to acknowledge the present and to realize that there may be a future different from the past. In many institutions within our own time, the classics and (strangely) philosophy and the modern foreign languages have had this experience and have had to reorientate their thinking.

To curb my temptation to speculate and generalize, let me come back to literature, and more specifically literature as it concerns us in English education. English departments and most English teachers teach much besides literature; I realize that, of course, and that the Conference on English Education has a similar breadth. But for the moment I have in mind the teacher of literature.

As good advice as any I have encountered recently for the teacher of literature was offered by Vice President Hubert Humphrey a few weeks ago when he addressed a banquet celebrating the establishment of the National Endowment for the Humanities. The burden of his speech was that the humanities should remain humanities, that they should not undertake to justify their existence, or to justify the new governmental support, by trying to act like something else. He would not argue, I suppose, that a scholar whose specialty is modern poetry, say, should ignore new *methodological approaches,* or should refuse to *quantify* or to *computerize* (to use phrases we hear considerably nowadays)

when his purposes are advanced by using such means; but I take it he would argue that in doing so the scholar should not try to be something he is not and should assume that he is worth most as a scholar in modern poetry, totally unhomogenized and unabashed. Do you recall Henry David Thoreau's note in his journal about his relations with Ralph Waldo Emerson? Thoreau found that often in the company of Emerson he tried to imagine himself somebody else in order to carry on the sort of reluctance or even disagreement he said Emerson's manner seemed to assume. In the attempt, Thoreau added, he lost his time and nearly lost his identity.

You need not have pointed out to you the moral I would draw here: As teachers of literature we should not borrow essays from economics or sociology or journalism to teach. We should not sell our students short by giving them second- or third- or fourth-rate literature on the assumption that literature of the first class is out of their reach. We can, for another thing, strive for a balance between the present and the past, remembering that unlike science and the social sciences, literature has a long past, and that its present cannot in fact be separated from its past. Perhaps what this says is that the teacher of literature needs a composite of balance, tolerance, patience, alertness, reverence, and an understanding of the literary experience he wants his students to have.

A piece of literary interpretation I remember reading a few years ago had the assertion toward the end, "According to my critical method," such and such is true. Now I happened to know the writer and I was reasonably sure he did not believe that such and such is true; but whether he believed it or not was not an issue with him in the essay. The issue was that the critical method produced such and such as the conclusion—Q.E.D. I would have felt better if he had let me know whether he thought the conclusion his method produced was true or false.

It was a lifelong habit with Herman Melville, you will recall, perhaps a compulsion, to look beyond conventions, traditions, and institutions—to strike through the mask, as Ahab phrased it. You may recall also that Melville tells in each of two books, *White-Jacket* and *Mardi*, how an intricate surgical operation was completed and there was great admiration for the skill, the finesse of the surgeon, for the perfection of the technique. Then he notes that in each instance it became known, casually and as an irrelevant detail obtruding indecently—it became known that the patient had died during the operation.

What I want to say here, continuing my sermonizing, is that we should keep method and technique in the service of our subject, not the reverse. It would be worse than foolish not to take advantage of every device of modern equipment, and it would be short-sighted not to encourage all efforts to adapt modern technology to our purposes. There are some among us who would spurn the mechanical pencil as an evil intrusion of modern materialism or modern mechanization, whichever they hate most. Such teachers will probably keep us from overloading our classrooms with electronic gadgets, but there will always be with us the danger of allowing methods of literary study to obscure the literature being studied or allowing collateral works to overshadow the literary work—the danger of allowing some side-show, perhaps we can say, to put the performance in the main tent out of business.

There can be no quarrel with fads, no more with fads in literary study, I suppose, than with fads in women's hats. In both instances, the fads seem inevitable and right while they are in vogue. But when in their turn they have been replaced, they both look to be something less than inevitable, if not downright silly, and we may discover that they have led us far astray. A literary scholar, with a memory extending back several decades, made a list the other day of the successive eras he has observed: the new humanism, the new criticism, and now, he said, the new bibliography (meaning textual criticism). His tone in adding the third series seemed to say: "We've been here so many times before." These are not simply fads, of course, and let me not stop on them, except to note that in varying degrees with various practitioners, they reduce the concern for the literature itself and thus inevitably defeat the purposes for which they exist. Verbal analysis, paraphrase of metaphor, assembling patterns of image, symbol, and structure—this composite method of literary study has prevailed among us so long, particularly in schools and colleges, that to many it has become synonymous with literary study. It is prominent in the testing for English in the Advanced Placement Program and in the achievement test in the Graduate Record Examinations series; and it will surely be prominent in the literature tests being constructed for the College Entrance Examination Board and for the projected national assessment of education.

The era of verbal and structural analysis passed its apex some time back, though it is still very much with us, and we can hope not to lose the considerable gains it has brought us. The enthusiasm and the force it once commanded are going now into two other channels. Those among us with leanings toward speculative and philosophical generalization have veered off sharply into critical and aesthetic theory, creating and using a special vocabulary, and touching base in actual literary works no more than occasionally.

Into the second channel have gone those leaning toward scientific manipulation and the application of intricate techniques. They have begun with the unquestioned need for pure texts for our authors and the equally unquestioned fact that we have only pathetically inadequate texts for most American authors and some English authors also; and they have set out to supply the need. They are the textual scholars. Happily, I think, they have assumed that the best text is often perfected by many decisions of the textual editor, who first considers manuscripts, printed editions, and all other pertinent evidence, and chooses the forms he believes closest to the author's final preference, free from the intrusion of copyeditor, friend, or wife.

This procedure, you can see, places staggering responsibility on the textual editor, the one who is to establish the text which will be labeled definitive. The Hinman Collator is a clever machine and it is satisfactory for the tiny portion of the procedure where it can be used, that is, in comparing two copies of one edition, though my brief experience with it suggests that it is in a stage of development about equal to that of Eli Whitney's cotton gin. I wonder—parenthetically—whether we might not ask some of our friends in applied science or engineering to develop for us a collator on Mr. Hinman's model fitting to the space age. Of course a collator making the sophisticated use of lenses, filaments,

and electronics I am suggesting would cost a few hundred thousand dollars rather than the few thousand dollars of the present model. Even with the help of machine collation, I started to say, the role of the textual editor is crucial, and as a consequence there has been for several years a running debate, not yet settled, as to the precedence of the literary scholar or the technical editor in determining a text. There are some who argue for the clinical, critically antiseptic—others would say critically sterile—establishment of an author's text. I have become aware of the debate while serving on one of the several editing teams now at work, and I continue to believe that nothing will be lost, to say the least, if the one managing the technical steps in fixing a text is a scholar who can speak with some assurance, some authority on the author of the text in question. I'm not sure, in fact, that anyone besides such a literary scholar is capable of making the decisions required in perfecting a literary text.

It is my fear, you see, that we may let methods, special techniques, or tangential materials obscure the literature we have in hand—and we must remember that literature, pristine and uncluttered, before we add our clutter, forms the only basis for including any literary courses in any curriculum. If we become so enthralled with instruments from scientific laboratories, so concerned to master intricate critical techniques; if we grow so fond of devices and methodologies that we forget our main purpose, I'm afraid we'll be past caring whether our subject, like Melville's patient, has died in the process.

To speak positively, in conclusion, after speaking negatively in much of what I have said—to speak positively, if we remember the essential nature and the essential qualities of literature, if we remember that the place of literature in education and in society cannot be taken by any kind or any degree of scientism; if we guard the perspective and the equanimity fitting on the humanist, we may hope to see literature merit the special support it is receiving in education nowadays, and we who teach literature may hope to help it contribute its special ingredient to the total final product, which is still in the process of being formed —the space age.